

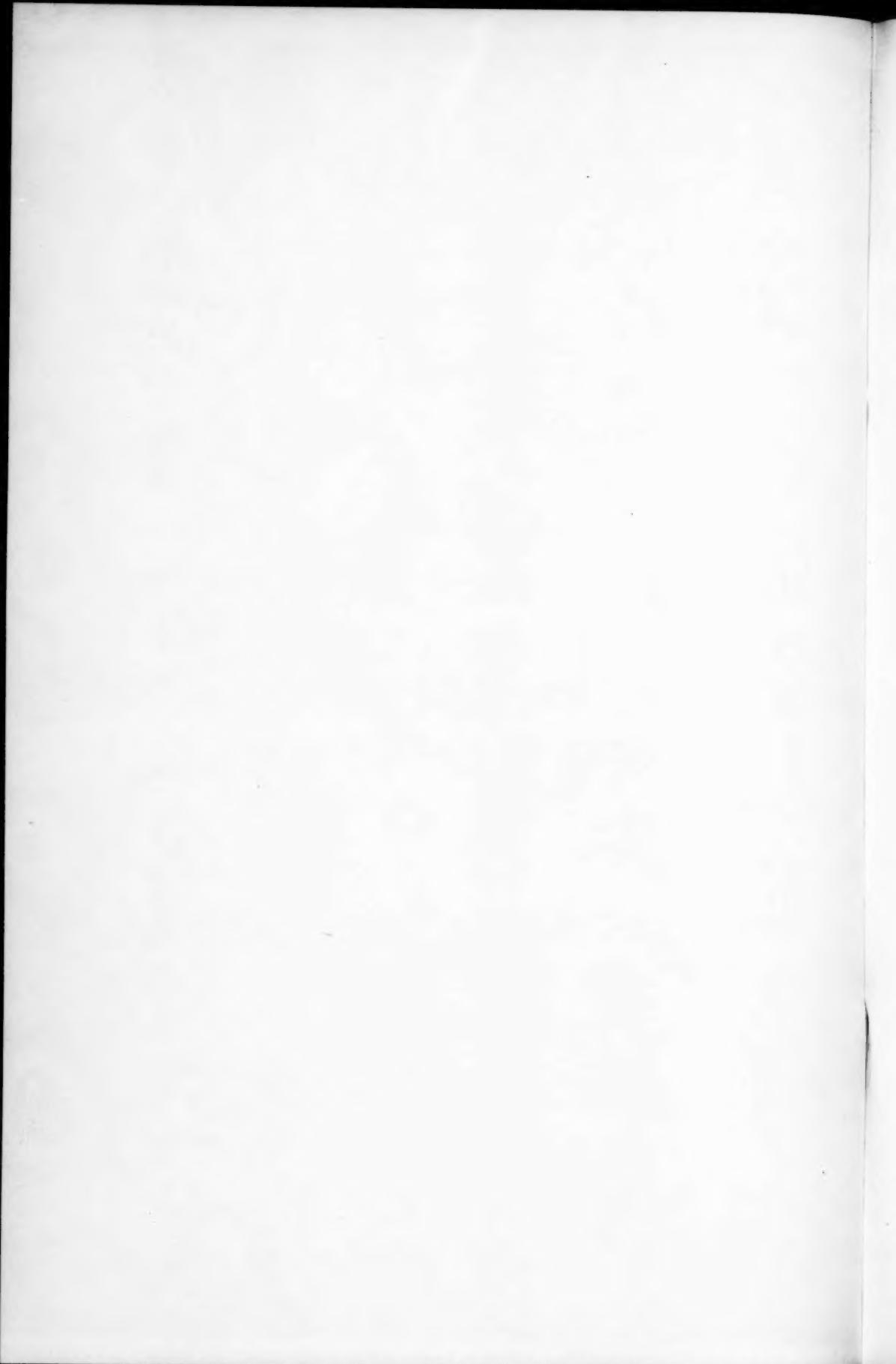
The Social Studies

Continuing

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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The New York Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies

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The fifteenth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, its first independent meeting, was held at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City, on November 28-30, 1935. The Council had the coöperation and support of the Middle States Association of History Teachers, and fourteen state and local organizations of social-studies teachers. The attendance was large, and with few exceptions, every state east of Texas and Minnesota was represented.

Prior to the New York meeting, the National Council for the Social Studies had held its meetings jointly with the American Historical Association, the National Education Association, and the Department of Superintendence, which provided the occasions and determined the place of meeting. Under the fostering care of these older and stronger organizations, the National Council for the Social Studies has made considerable progress; it has grown in membership, and in the number of its activities and publications.

An informal dinner was held on Thanksgiving evening. The convention was formally opened on Friday morning, November 29, with a general session, followed, in the afternoon, by four sectional sessions, devoted to curriculum, adult education, professional activities, and tests and measurements. At the general session, held jointly with the Middle States Association of History Teachers, Carlton J. H. Hayes, Columbia University, discussed "History and the Present," followed by George S. Counts, Teachers College, Columbia University, who spoke on "The Opportunities of the Social Studies Teachers." Dr. Hayes defended history as a school subject against those who would delete it and those who would distort it with over-emphasis on current events; he stressed the teaching of history as a means of decreasing the gullibility of human beings—gullibility now being too bountifully fed by the radio, motion pictures, and newspapers, the tools of propagandists. Dr. Counts pleaded for more active participation by social-studies teachers in community life, citing the urgency of combating the influence of pressure groups with their "mania against so-called un-American doctrines in the schools." These "witch-hunters," he said, have made particular targets of the social-studies teachers, despite the fact that the "teaching of social science is the part of American education most valuable in equipping the rising generation to deal intelligently with the problems of their times."

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An experiment in curriculum making now in progress at the University of Minnesota was reported by A. C. Krey, of that institution. He stated that the basic principles being followed in the project are vertical integration of the social studies from the first to the fourteenth grades, and coördination of school courses with real life outside the school, particularly in the pupils' own community. Michael Levine, New Utrecht High School, Brooklyn, New York, declared that many vital social problems are inadequately treated in the present curricula. His conclusions referred particularly to the field of American history, based upon textbook analyses in that field. According to Mr. Levine, inadequate attention is now given to the problems of labor, conservation, agriculture, representation, corruption, transportation, education, race, culture, women, and propaganda.

The third address of this session, which evoked the most comment in the discussion that followed, was delivered by John L. Tildsley, District Superintendent of Schools, New York City. He criticised the social studies for their paucity of disciplinary values and declared that unless they could introduce a more substantial regimen into their conduct, the social studies could never serve adequately as the core of the whole curriculum. "Social science as yet has not produced a discipline comparable to the discipline of Cicero," and "yet the disciplined man is the only free man," he averred, expressing a hope that greater discipline would be attained in the social studies.

In discussing adult education, H. A. Overstreet, College of the City of New York, said: "the most important new addition which must be made to our modern set-up is a nationally devised scheme of adult education." Chairman Edwin H. Reeder, University of Vermont, led a spirited discussion on the question.

A widespread movement of social-studies teachers to organize into state and local professional groups was evidenced in the discussion of professional activities. The organization and activities of state councils for the social studies in Missouri and Minnesota were reported, respectively, by Julian C. Aldrich, Webster Groves High School, and George Engberg, University of Minnesota High School. In both states the organizations are young and growing, hold state meetings, publish bulletins, and encourage organization of local groups. A large independent local organization, the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, was described by Charles C. Barnes, Head of the Social-Science Department, Detroit Public Schools. He reported that the Detroit Club coöperates closely with the National Council for the Social Studies, sponsors four or five professional lectures each year, conducts discussion meetings, and publishes the *Detroit Social Studies Bulletin*. Miss Elsie Calvin, Senior High School, New Castle, Pennsylvania, the official delegate of the Council to last summer's meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations at Oxford, England, reported on that meeting. She spoke of the variety of professional topics which were considered by educators from all parts of the world, and the dominant emphasis on education's rôle in fostering world coöperation and peace.

New frontiers in developing testing techniques in the social studies were revealed by the three speakers on tests and measurements. Howard Anderson,

State University of Iowa, noted that many objectives of instruction in the social studies are not being adequately measured, and called particular attention to the need for testing for mastery of basic study skills. The difficulties of measuring non-informational outcomes of instruction and means of overcoming them were discussed by Miss Helen Halter, New York State Teachers College, in a paper based primarily on her experience in attempting to evaluate an experimental program. The need for adjusting tests to a changing social-studies curriculum was emphasized by Wilbur F. Murra, University of Minnesota. He criticised the use of tests in which their content does not harmonize with the content of the courses in which they were used. He deplored situations in which course content is determined by test content and urged that test makers should find out what is being taught before deciding objectives for testing programs.

Perhaps the liveliest session of the entire convention came Saturday morning in the discussion on "Freedom of Teaching," at which Dr. Bessie L. Pierce, University of Chicago, presided. Dr. Abraham Lefkowitz, Head of the Department of Civics, High School of Commerce, New York City, branded the loyalty oaths for teachers as their "greatest menace to freedom." He decried fascist tendencies in the nation today, and urged the necessity for critical social thinking in our democracy, and especially in the schools. Roger N. Baldwin, Director of the American Civil Liberties Union, New York City, reiterated the plea for strong teacher organizations to resist pressure groups. He pointed out that social-studies teachers are more in need of protective devices than other teachers. In the discussion which followed, the speakers were attacked and defended vigorously. The principal critic was Dr. Herbert D. A. Donovan, Chairman of the History and Economics Department, James Madison High School, Brooklyn, New York, who defended the loyalty oaths.

The three speakers who dealt with "Problems of Curriculum Making" emphasized the need for curriculum revision in the social studies, and the desirability of closer articulation of courses offered on the several grade levels. Horace Kidger, Head of the Social-Studies Department, Senior High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts, said: "Organization for curriculum revision, to secure the best results, must be along democratic lines constantly molding the final product in conformity with the epitomized opinion of the groups. Only such organization can create the real teacher interest which is essential for such an undertaking. Curriculum reorganization should have ever before it the vision of a twelve-year sequential course and of the contributions which each unit should make to the entire undertaking." Donnal V. Smith, New York State College for Teachers, Albany, outlined a specific curriculum appropriate for the six years of the high school, in which the offering in each grade would be determined by the nature of the child, his previous experience, and his previous social-studies courses. Lucian Lamm, Chairman of the History Department, Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, asserted: "The social studies should be made the core of the curriculum. . . . The planning of a sequence necessarily involves not only a greater measure of correlation within the social studies themselves, but also with the

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other subjects of the curriculum Curriculum revision should be a constant process if the social studies are to be a living and practical medium for the development of the pupil."

A panel discussion by A. C. Krey, R. O. Hughes, Elmer Ellis, and W. G. Kimmel considered the question, Shall the National Council for the Social Studies Institute a Fact-Finding and Investigative Service for Its Members? The purpose of such a service would be to lend assistance to teachers involved in controversies over freedom of teaching. The speakers agreed that some sort of policy should be sponsored, but urged caution in its operation and pointed out limitations imposed by the Council's meager resources. A definite recommendation advocating the proposal was made with the suggestion that more detailed plans for carrying it out be considered at the Chattanooga meeting.

The dinner meeting was held Friday evening, November 29, with Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota, and President of the National Council for the Social Studies, presiding. The address was delivered by Dixon Ryan Fox, President of Union College, and President of the New York State Historical Association. Dr. Fox deplored the widespread influence of propaganda in American life and the efforts to mold or stifle opinions by laws. He pointed out that repressive influences fall with particular force upon the public schools.¹

The luncheon meeting was held Saturday, November 30, with Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, presiding. Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University, introduced as the Nestor of his field, delighted his audience with an informal talk on "The Place of History in Education for International Peace." Professor Johnson stressed the absolutely essential rôle of truth in history, and condemned nationalism and provincial prejudices in the writing of history. He pointed out that Germany, Italy, and Russia are not the only places where free teaching of history is banned, citing chauvinistic influences upon history teaching in the schools and colleges of the United States. He closed his address, saying: "The enduring things in the long story of human development, told without provincial prejudice, embracing all lands and all peoples, leading to, but not led by, the fleeting present—world history one and the same, for all the schools in the world and studied by all the children in the world."²

The richness of simultaneous programs presented problems of choice, and not a few members tried to hear parts of different programs which were in progress at the same time. The coöperating organizations had been asked to send delegates to the meetings, who met in an informal session on Saturday morning, November 30. It is probable that the custom of designating delegates will be developed more fully and that much of the business of the Council will be handled by them in the future.

The Executive Committee of the Council held two meetings in which it considered routine matters. It voted to continue the policy of holding joint meetings

¹ Additional excerpts from Dr. Fox's, as well as Dr. Lefkowitz's, address are published in the department, "Recent Happenings in the Social Studies," in this issue of the magazine.

² Many of the papers read at the sessions will be published in forthcoming issues of *The Social Studies*.

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with the American Historical Association, the National Education Association, and the Department of Superintendence. For its meeting in 1936, the Council received invitations from several cities. The Executive Committee voted to accept the invitation from Detroit, and the National Council for the Social Studies will meet in that city on November 26-28, 1936.

The following resolutions were adopted:

That the National Council for the Social Studies extends its heartiest thanks to the Committee on Local Arrangements for its very efficient and satisfactory management of the multitudinous details connected with the arrangement of the meetings; W. G. Kimmel, Chairman of the Committee, and his local associates deserve our special appreciation.

That the Council expresses its appreciation of the contributions of the speakers, all of whom served without honoraria.

That the Council appreciates the coöperation of the Middle States Association of History Teachers and the other organizations which joined in sponsoring the meetings.

That the members assembled heartily endorse the inauguration of the policy of holding a series of independent annual meetings of the National Council for the Social Studies.

The Opportunity of the Social Studies Teacher*

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The opportunity of the teacher of social studies, like the opportunity of the teacher of any other subject, is threefold. First, there is the opportunity attached to the practice of his specialty within the schools; second, there is the opportunity associated with his membership in a great profession; and third, there is the opportunity involved in his citizenship in community, state, and nation. Although these three types of opportunity are inextricably interwoven, they will be treated separately.

The opportunity which the social-studies teacher has as a teacher at the present juncture in history would seem to be of the highest order—superior to that of the teacher in any other division of the curriculum. The age would seem to be made for him. Society has entered a period of profound transition; social life is marked by innumerable conflicts and contradictions, strains, tensions, and problems; and the present and coming generation will be called upon to make some of the great choices of history. Unless all signs are deceptive they will be asked to make major decisions affecting the very structure of society and the ends which that structure is to serve. They may have to decide whether the republic is to endure, whether democracy itself is to survive and develop, and, if so, in what form.

All of this would suggest that American society is in need of social-studies teachers today as never before. Indeed, if there are any such things as "fundamentals" in education today, they would seem to be the social studies. The American people, as they face a basic crisis in their own and in world civilization, are woefully lacking in both social knowledge and social understanding. Fed daily on the banalities, the trivialities, and outright deceptions of the sensational press, the radio, and the movies, they lack the intellectual equipment necessary to enable them to deal effectively with the issues of the day. Presumably, the teachers of the social studies are to help make up the deficiency. For is not their specialty this very field in which men must have illumination and guidance?

More than a generation ago Henry Adams, speaking before the historians, declared that the time would come when they would be asked if the world moves and in what direction. Apparently that time has come. Are the teachers of the social studies prepared to take up the challenge? The evidence seems to indicate that they are not, or at any rate that society is not prepared to put the challenge to them directly.

It is one of the ironies or paradoxes of history that in times of crisis, when

* An address delivered at the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies (at the joint session with the Middle States Association of History Teachers), Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City, November 29, 1935.

intelligence might be expected to serve most fully its biological purpose, its use is generally proscribed. That we all know this to be due to the fundamental conflict of interests in society does not make the fact any less painful or tragic. So today, when the condition of society would appear to place a premium upon the work of the teacher of the social studies, powerful and concerted efforts are being made to close his mouth and render his teaching sterile. He finds himself involved increasingly in the social crisis. He has become the storm center of the educational system. And he has become so for the simple reason that his specialty has taken on social significance. In times of social stability he is allowed great freedom, because what he teaches can have little positive effect upon society. But in times of instability and uncertainty, when old institutions and arrangements show signs of decay and collapse, he becomes an object of suspicion and distrust, a possible source of danger, because his teachings may be caught up by social forces and made to bear fruit. In such times privileged interests and classes, no longer secure because of necessary or desirable functions performed, are tempted to defend their privileges, first through the restriction of freedom of thought and expression and eventually through the use of police power.

That the teacher of the social studies is the storm center of the educational system today is clear to all. Practically every issue of any great metropolitan daily paper tells of the dismissal or disciplining of a teacher somewhere in the country, of the attack upon the schools by this or that "highly respectable" individual, society, or organization, or of a controversy that has been raised over the teaching of some so-called dangerous or un-American doctrine in the schools. This mania has revived the ancient practice, which the American people once thought they had left behind them in the pre-democratic era, of endeavoring to control states of mind by legislative enactment. Thus at present all public-school teachers in twenty-two states of the Union and the District of Columbia are required by law to subscribe to an oath or affirmation of loyalty to the constitution of the state and the Constitution of the United States. Seven of these laws were passed last year. The New York legislature even considered the enactment of such a law for students in colleges and universities. The immediate and most vocal promoters of this legislation, as everybody knows, have been the Daughters of the American Revolution, the American Legion, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, and that super-American, William Randolph Hearst. But there is reason for believing that these persons and organizations are but the agents or cat's-paws for more powerful forces in American life. Certain it is that the American Liberty League, which, because of its name, might presumably be expected to interest itself in guarding liberty in all of its forms, has failed to exert itself in preventing the passage of this legislation. There is good reason for believing therefore that this organization is not accurately named. Confusion of thought would be reduced if it frankly and honestly called itself the American Property League, or the American League of Big Business. But these gentry are scarcely interested in the reduction of either the amount or the intensity of the confusion of thought among the American people.

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PRESSURE GROUPS

At whom are the current attacks of the so-called patriotic societies aimed? At whom is this legislation directed? At the teacher of mathematics? The teacher of chemistry? The teacher of Latin? The teacher of music? Or the football coach? The answer of course is "no" in each case. The primary object of all of this public attention is the teacher of the social studies. There are, to be sure, great numbers of social-studies teachers whose instruction would never give rise to the slightest uneasiness in the breasts of Ralph Easley, General Amos Fries, Henry I. Harriman, and William Randolph Hearst. These teachers possess actual genius, whether inherited or acquired it is impossible to say, in keeping the minds of their pupils away from ideas and bodies of fact which might shake their faith in the righteousness and finality of the existing system of economic and political arrangements. All unconsciously they have acted in accord with a set of instructions for the avoidance of dangerous issues to be found in a manual for instructors in Civilian Conservation Corp Camps recently issued by the United States Office of Education. The advice runs as follows:

How to avoid dangerous issues—Discussion can reach a point where it may run into dangerous issues. This is particularly true in foreman training classes and with experienced groups. An instructor is not expected to sit as a judge and give decisions concerning arguments and policies. Should it be indicated that dangerous topics are being brought up for discussion in the class, the instructor should analyze the situation, and if it is considered unwise to deal with any given topic, lead the discussion away from that topic. One safe way is, of course, to stay away from dangerous topics. Recognize them early in the discussion, and switch the subject to something of greater interest to the group if possible.

Another way is to promise to bring the dangerous issue up at some future time. This will make it possible for the instructor to secure additional information before discussing it, and it also sets up the possibility of the topic being forgotten. A story to switch the interests of the class is a clever device for changing the topic. Frankness and honesty will help, and, if the case warrants it, the instructor should tell the class that the dangerous issue is not a part of the lesson, and should refuse to discuss it.¹

However, in spite of the ability of many teachers of the social studies to keep away from vital and disturbing questions, it is this field of instruction that is receiving the attention of heresy hunters today. Also it is this field of instruction that is peculiarly valuable in equipping the rising generation to deal intelligently with the problems of their time. So we come to the conclusion that the theoretical opportunity of the social-studies teacher is enormous. The times literally call for him and the unhampered practice of his craft. But his actual opportunity at present is greatly restricted, not only by the inadequacy of his preparation, but also by the play of social forces upon the school.

If the teacher of the social studies were freed from these hampering influences and if he were then to rise to the full level of his opportunities, he would become one of the most effective agencies in society working on the side of a peaceful, enlightened, and democratic decision of the great issues facing society.

¹U.S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Vocational Division. *A Manual: For Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps*, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935, 22-23.

Besides giving the members of the younger generation some knowledge of the history of the human past, of the diverse sources of their vast cultural heritage, and of the various peoples and cultural patterns in the world today, he would endeavor, particularly at the higher levels of the educational system, to acquaint them, within the limits of time and capacity, with the basic institutions, conflicts, problems, issues, and potentialities of industrial civilization, all in their developmental relations, not consenting to conceal any dark and unlovely features of the contemporary domestic and world situation because of the pressure of vested interests. Also he would bring before them for cool and critical examination all of the social programs, theories, and philosophies now competing for survival in the world, not passing over any because of its alleged dangerous character. It is of course understood that all of this would be done out of the context of American conceptions of life and society, in which the ideals and values of democracy are recognized as occupying a central position. The material and spiritual interests of the masses of the people would always be regarded as paramount.

But if teachers of the social studies are to have this opportunity, they will have to fight for it. It is evident that forces of reaction and obscurantism, powerful, determined, and organized, have decided that they are not to be allowed this opportunity. The teachers of the social studies must therefore band together for the threefold purpose of developing a theory of their function in society, of protecting individuals in their number against the assaults of organized minorities, and of presenting their case to the public through every available avenue and instrumentality.

OPPORTUNITIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

This brings the analysis to the question of the opportunity of the teacher of the social studies as a member of the teaching profession. Although, because of the nature of his subject, he is the most likely victim of the witch hunters, the other members of the profession are by no means exempt from attack. Even a teacher of arithmetic might easily become involved in a discussion of such dangerous issues as rates of profits and wages. With respect to this question all the teachers of the country from kindergarten through the university have a community of interest. But the social-studies teacher should lead the way in promoting the general organization of the profession and in forging the organization into an instrument for achieving and maintaining the integrity of the calling. It is his opportunity and responsibility to lead the way because he is in a peculiarly central position and also because he is in command of a body of knowledge and thought indispensable to the formulation of professional policy on the matter at issue. More perhaps than the teacher of any other subject he is equipped to understand the significance for society of keeping open during these difficult times every available channel of thought. In a very real sense this is his special obligation to the profession. If he will not take responsibility here, there is little reason for believing that anyone else will.

A closely related opportunity grows out of the changing status of education in American society. During the past several generations the school has developed with great rapidity until today it stands as one of our major social institutions, serving close to thirty million pupils and students and employing more than one million teachers. At the same time, the complexity of the enterprise has greatly increased and a large body of professional knowledge, necessary to its conduct, has been evolved. The question of the formulation of educational policy under these conditions is hardly what it was in the heyday of the district school. The ordinary citizen can know but little about what does go on or should go on in the classroom. He therefore becomes the easy prey of any demagogue or special pleader who wishes to bend the school program to his will. This happens daily now throughout the length and breadth of the land.

Under these conditions responsibility for the formulation of policy should devolve more and more upon the teaching profession as a body. The answer often given to such a proposal is that it would mean taking from the public, from the parents of children, the right to determine the character of the educational program. And we are presented with the horrifying picture of American boys and girls being reared on alien doctrines introduced into the schools by un-American teachers.

Two points may be advanced in defense of the position taken in this paper. In the first place, the public is a rather nebulous entity. The theory that the effective public is composed of all of the citizens of the community or the nation, each registering his own independent judgment on every civic question, requires radical revision. The effective public today is composed largely of organized and highly articulate minorities which possess great financial resources and have power over the organs of opinion. Consequently, if the formulation of school policy is left to the so-called public, it will actually be left to these minorities. That the teachers as a body would be less devoted to the interests of the children and society as a whole than such forces, few would have the hardihood to contend. Moreover, at best, the profession could hope only to check the power of the minorities and serve to bring questions of importance to the attention of the unorganized masses.

In the second place, the teachers of the nation approximate the ideal of 100 per cent Americans more than almost any other occupational group in the country. Practically all of them are native-born. And more than that, they come disproportionately from the small communities and the farms where the traditional American ideals are most deeply rooted. Also, because of their extended training, they have to an exceptional degree come under the influence of American institutions and ideas. If they cannot be trusted in the fullest sense of the word, then indeed has the nation fallen on evil days. In view of all of these facts perhaps the teachers would be justified in inquiring into the Americanism of those who are seeking to regiment them and their charges.

There is one more aspect of this question of policy-making that needs to be developed. With the growing economic and cultural integration of the country

there is every reason for believing that educational policy will be integrated on a national scale. This seems to be in the logic of industrial society and powerful tendencies in that direction are already apparent. That there lies in these tendencies grave danger of the nation-wide regimentation of thought through the schools is obvious. In the hands of the federal administration the schools might easily be converted into an instrument for enforcing upon the schools of the country a narrow body of political doctrine. The best check on such a possibility would seem to reside in a powerful teaching profession whose members were devoted not only to the practice of their specialties in the schoolrooms but also to the broad questions of national educational policy. Today the profession lags far behind the developing social situation.

Needless to say, with respect to this entire subject of the responsibility of the teaching profession in the formulation of educational policy for community, state, and nation, the teacher of the social studies occupies a strategic position. He is equipped by training, experience, and interest for playing a major rôle in the process. He should aspire to a position of leadership in the profession—a profession which is just emerging today as a new and considerable force in the life of the nation. No previous society in history ever had among its citizens one million one hundred thousand teachers.

This leads to the final point of the analysis. The teacher of the social studies, besides being a worker in the classroom and a member of a great profession, is a citizen. The point need not be labored here that he is specially equipped to be a useful citizen in an age of social transition. He is under obligation to place his knowledge and thought at the disposal of the older as well as of the younger generation. And in thus putting his knowledge to the test of life he will become a more effective and confident teacher of the young.

Moreover, in an age of organization like the present he should perform his civic duties collectively as well as individually. The teaching profession should interest itself in debate, and take positions on the important questions of the day. Teachers have quite as much right to do this as business men or any other occupational group. In fact they are being forced into the arena of public affairs by the vicious attacks which have been made upon them and upon education during recent years. Already they are learning some things. They are learning that they and the interests which they represent have both friends and enemies in society today. Some of their enemies have been named in this paper. Among their friends are the more enlightened of the religious groups, the more liberal representatives of the press, organized labor almost everywhere, and, when they have the opportunity of understanding the issues at stake, the ordinary men and women who do the work of the world. A major opportunity of the teacher of the social studies is to cultivate these friendships and to make himself truly worthy of the great trust which history has placed in his hands.

A New Approach to the Social Studies

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The social-studies field in recent years has been undergoing many changes, one of the most important of which has been the transition from a fixed, narrow, informational curriculum to one rich in functional knowledge and practical civic and social content, adapted to varying needs and individual interests. This new program, broadly conceived, is coming to include within its compass contributions from many and varied subjects—the social sciences, art, literature, music, and even some phases of science. The field is variously coming to be known in experimental schools by such terms as the core subject, the basic course, social living, or by similar terms which imply fundamental and essential training and education in the broad area of social relationships. Its purposes quite generally can be centered around three major objectives:

- (1) Developing an interpretative, critical understanding of the world in which we live today.
- (2) Providing a rich and varied apprenticeship into the social, civic, and commercial life of the community.
- (3) Developing balanced and many-sided personalities with abilities and interests which will eventuate in individually satisfying and socially worthwhile lives.

Increasing recognition is being given to the need for a core curriculum of this general type which will establish some essential generalizations, cultivate desirable appreciations, and develop basic social attitudes and civic qualities which should be common to all young citizens.

For this basic social course, it is important to select a central theme or pattern of work upon which to build a sequence of studies for all grades in our schools. Once a pattern is agreed upon, it is not difficult to draw into the program essential materials from the fields of history, geography, economics, English, and the like. The important thing is for teachers freely to select content from every desirable source, and yet not to drag in materials just because they are part of a subject field. When some such pattern as this has been developed in terms of the civic and social growth desired, there will result a social-studies curriculum which is not a conglomeration of unrelated materials or a superimposed outline of logically organized adult concepts, but is a complete and significant study in itself.

As Alexander Pope said, "the proper study of mankind is man." No better theme for this fusion program can be found than the ways of living of man throughout the ages, with especial emphasis on the contemporary world. It is possible to organize a scope and sequence of studies of this nature to extend from the elementary throughout the secondary years, such a program to take a large part of the pupil's time at the lower levels, with a decreasing amount in the upper grades. As the pupil enters the senior year, he will need less of the common experience and more opportunity for pursuing his special inter-

ests. Needless to say, at all levels a much larger share of the time for total instruction should be given to this program than is the general practice at the present time.

The sequence in the elementary grades might well be centered around increasingly expanding areas of living, starting with the neighborhood and extending eventually to other countries and cultures. At the secondary level, the pattern might be developed largely in terms of the ways of living of the American people from Colonial times to the present day, the ways of living of other nations and cultures, past and present, culminating in a realistic consideration of the problems of living in the world of today. This approach implies the selection of representative and outstanding ages and periods of achievement from prehistoric times to the current period in America, using such units as primitive times, Classical Greece, Immortal Rome, Contemporary France, Elizabethan England, Colonial America, The Old South, Age of Big Business, The Early Twentieth Century, and America Today. These units and others of similar nature should be arranged in a sequence following the general story of mankind on the earth, in so far as this is possible.

In developing a program of this nature, it is important to provide for a study of those phases of the various cultures, ages, and epochs which will result in a well-rounded understanding of the life of the people. With this objective in mind, certain desirable viewpoints and essential factors are needed as a starting point from which to develop activities, projects, and problems. There naturally must be many variations, depending upon the peculiar characteristics of each culture, the interests of the pupils, current happenings, and the materials available for each particular class. Further, it is not anticipated that all the factors need be treated in any one unit or that they should necessarily be included in any particular sequence.

The different phases of group life can be brought into a social study of this type in whatever manner seems most helpful in carrying out the special aims of the course and the intended outcomes of each unit. Especially important is the use of materials from the various social sciences, the arts, music, and literature. The daily life and cultural achievements of each group can be treated in such a way as to provide a diversity of activities, rich in social and cultural content. It need hardly be added that the actual development of the cultural units must take place in the classroom. Previously prepared subject units can merely suggest the fields and themes, cite certain desirable materials, and indicate possible learning activities and problems. It cannot be stressed too strongly that the development of an outline of subject matter and assimilative material to be studied by the pupils is inadequate as a learning unit. The latter must be an outgrowth of activities carried on by the pupils in the classroom. In this way only will the various activities eventuate in challenging and worthwhile social experiences.

There are many ways of grouping the varied habits, customs, and institutions that make up man's ways of living and thinking in social groups. For pur-

poses of developing units in the social studies, or the basic course, it seems feasible to include them under some such areas as the following, each of which will be briefly described: Family, Home, and Social Life; Religious Beliefs and Customs; Arts, Crafts, and Music; Economic Life and Working Conditions; Education and Intellectual Pursuits of a People; Recreation and Leisure-Time Pursuits; Government and Political Life; Literature and the Literary Life of a People.

1. The experiences of a people in family, home and social life deserve considerable emphasis as a major factor in the activities and advancement of civilized groups. Too often the attention, in studying cultures, is directed entirely to political, military, and economic affairs, neglecting the everyday living and customs of the common people. The following factors, among others, should be included in this treatment of daily life: food, clothing, status of women and children, morals, manners, social classes, relations of individual and family to the state and society, and the general influence of the home on the life of the people. The home and family life should be adequately presented in each unit as one of the most enduring and basic forces in man's social development.

2. A second major interest in man's social life centering around religious beliefs and practices, necessitates wider inclusion of these sources in each unit. The mythological influences, the religious leaders, the methods of worship, the emphasis on the future life, and contrasts with the religious life of other groups, are among the elements deserving of treatment. A study of these various evidences of man's belief in the supernatural are most essential to an adequate understanding of the culture of a people. Materials of this nature need to be introduced in a very elementary and descriptive manner, but it is important that they be included especially in treating those groups which existed in prehistoric, ancient, and medieval times.

Further, it should be kept in mind that religion has vital significance only as it is deeply rooted in the daily experience of a people; hence it cannot adequately be studied apart from the other aspects of the social fabric.

3. The arts, crafts, and music are an integral part of the life of a people, deserving of considerable attention in a cultural study. Frequently these aspects of civilization are neglected in social studies classes in favor of more academic content. Outstanding evidences of architecture, sculpture, printing, music, and the handcrafts expressed in the life of each group should be included in the treatment. To show the influence of art in everyday living, the techniques and activities of craftsmen and artists should be fully studied along with the simple expressions of art in the pursuits of the common people. Thus the emphasis should be placed both on art in daily life and on the great artistic achievements of the age or period of history.

4. A further important factor relates to economic life and working conditions. It is quite manifest that a fundamental concern of man in all ages and groups has been the problem of a livelihood and economic security. As such, this deserves much more attention than it generally receives in the social studies curriculum. Consideration needs to be given to major occupational and industrial pursuits, technological achievements, property and landholding, living standards, the status of various social groups, life of the working classes, the growth of humanitarianism, and the methods of coping with economic problems and depressions.

At the secondary level, materials of this nature need to be treated primarily in a descriptive and narrative form. A study of economic principles and problems as such should not be included except possibly in the more specialized courses in economics in the upper grades.

5. As a major interest in contemporary life, education should be included in the study of various groups. The achievements of a people in overcoming ignorance, superstition, and intolerance; the influences of home training, schools, and educational life; and a comparison with the educational activities of other countries are among the elements to consider. Here again, the treatment should be descriptive rather than interpretive.

Closely akin to educational activities are the developments in science and philosophy. The scientific spirit manifest in the country, the importance attached to cultural achievements, and the ideas of the great philosophers should be emphasized where it is possible to bring them into the study, in ways significant to the pupils.

6. Increasingly recognized as a vital aspect of the life of a people, recreation and leisure time interests warrant inclusion in any adequate treatment of a cultural group. The ways in which people have found their entertainment and amusement can be closely related to the dominant characteristics and national traits. Considerable attention can well be given to the existence of leisure and free time, the ways in which different groups have used their free time, the influence which it has exerted on the arts and culture, and values which have been derived in producing an advanced civilization. Hence, a study of these should be made an important part of each unit of work, especially in a consideration of industrial and contemporary groups.

7. Government as a major interest and concern of man needs to be considered along with the other factors. However, an intensive analysis of the organization of government, and the many episodes and incidents in the political life of a nation, have no place in a balanced study of the type desired. It is, nevertheless, important that some attention be given to outstanding events in the evolution of a government and to the general part which that government played in the economic and social life of the times. The difficulties in establishing stable government, the influence of democratic ideas, and the part which the government and its leaders exerted in promoting progress—all deserve some emphasis. But by no means should the attention be directed toward a mastery of the details and intricacies of government. They can be taken up in problem courses in the eleventh and twelfth grades, where it may seem desirable to include them as a more specialized subject of study.

8. In any study of civilizations and ways of living, extensive use needs to be made of literary selections which will provide a true picture of the people and their customs. Folk tales, myths, poetry, and essays which give an insight into the daily life, the beliefs, and ideals of the people, should be widely used. Among other things, considerable emphasis should be placed on the outstanding examples of literary expression, the relation of literature to other phases of the national life, the great writers of the country, their influence as a social force, and their contributions to the world's literature.

The epochs and achievements in a nation's development can be more adequately presented through literary selections than in any other way. Genuine understandings and appreciations can be developed which will make the study a rich and imaginative experience for the pupils.

For this purpose selections need to be chosen which are sufficiently stimulating and challenging to provide a real emotional and intellectual appeal, and yet which are not so mature and advanced as to destroy interest and prevent understanding.

In treating materials which deal with various aspects of the life of a nation, past or contemporary, it is especially important to keep certain basic concepts and interpretative factors in mind. These include particularly, the Geographical Setting; The Anthropological Origins; The Historical Background; Present-Day Problems; and The Social Outlook of the Age. The relation of each of these to a study of ways of living should be considered purely as means of enriching and vitalizing pupil experiences; not as a means of bringing in subject matter otherwise considered important by the teacher.

One of the general objectives of a functional social-studies program should be the development of an increased understanding of the relationship between environment and the customs and achievements of various ages and countries. For carrying out this aim it is essential that materials be provided showing the close interplay between geography and life in the various human use regions

of the earth. This may be done by bringing a study of the following topics into the unit—physical characteristics of the country, climatic conditions, vegetation, distribution of resources, means of transportation, great cities and historic spots, cultural adjustment to environment, conquest of environment, and the general influence of the geographical setting on the development of the nation. A formal study of the physical geography of each country does not provide the desirable understandings; only by presenting the geographical materials in their social and human setting, can influences on the daily customs and experiences of the different groups be shown.

Closely allied to the geography of a culture is the anthropological background. The origins of the habits, customs, and conditions of life of each cultural group should be sought in their primitive beginnings. A study of these origins will clarify and explain many phases of civilized life which otherwise are difficult to understand and evaluate. The complexities of modern life can be made much more meaningful to pupils if these early beginnings are understood.

Social organization in primitive times can be observed as a complete whole, and does not require great masses of factual detail. As a result, pupils will be able to study present-day society without finding the details so confusing. Emphasis should be placed on the origins of those dominant aspects of early group life, such as types and races of man, language and speech, beginnings of arts and crafts, agricultural methods, shelter, transportation, communication, developing tools, religious life, and social customs. The aim should be to include all materials which will provide a comparative basis for furthering an understanding of how men live together in present-day societies.

In a study of ways of living, human history probably provides a more abundant source of materials than any other social-science field. While the historical approach need not be closely followed in developing units, it is important that the historical setting be included somewhere in the procedure. It gives a certain framework of events which makes it possible to place the people and their contributions in a time relationship to other cultures and civilizations. Further, it provides a narrative setting which gives the study a more dynamic and realistic character.

In providing this setting, it is essential to include only those materials which are significant in the growth of civilization, and which can be made of interest and value to pupils. The various aspects of life and culture previously mentioned should receive the major consideration, thus directing attention to materials which treat of everyday living and commonplace developments rather than the affairs of courts, political events, dynastic rivalries, diplomacy and war. In a word, the historical approach should include man's scientific, intellectual, industrial, and religious, as well as his political life, so that the true social and cultural history of each people and age will be an integral part of every unit.

Coincident with a study of the historical development of a culture, the important issues in present-day life should be considered. Materials dealing with

current trends should be a *fundamental part of each unit* and should be a determining factor in the constant re-evaluation and interpretation of historical backgrounds. If the study concerns a foreign culture, the emphasis on current problems should include in every case a reference and orientation to American life *today*. Only as the study of the various cultures can aid in furthering an intelligent understanding of problems and conditions of our age is their treatment fully justified. The use of current materials of necessity calls for continuous change and adjustment of curricular materials to meet the changing conditions in each country and throughout the world at large.

THE SOCIAL VIEWPOINT AND ITS INFLUENCE IN THE LIFE OF A PEOPLE

As an increasingly significant factor in a study of contemporary society, the social viewpoint warrants consideration. In every age and society the welfare of the mass of people and the interests of the many have played a part. In a few groups this influence has been dominant. In most others it has been almost negligible. Ideals of democratic society and the coöperative spirit are basic factors which should be given prime consideration.

It is difficult to provide materials which will adequately explain these factors to pupils in secondary schools. However, the extensive use of literature, cultural history, and sociological materials will help materially. Emphasis should be placed upon the growth of humanitarianism, the care of dependent groups, social control, public opinion, social legislation, and the slow and continual progress made in various societies toward the ideals of democracy.

In summary, let it be said that the study of the life and culture of representative peoples over the world, with the major attention given to the American scene, offers many possibilities in promoting the aims and objectives of the new social curriculum.

Units of work will provide these desired outcomes in terms of rich and meaningful experiences, if materials are used which portray the human and aesthetic side of life, if the close relationship between environment and culture is shown, if the ideals and spirit of each age are emphasized, if the everyday life and happenings of the people are included, and finally if every group is conceived of as one aspect of man's advancing civilization. In this manner the social studies are changing and have been changing from an academic study of history, geography, and government, to a vital and dynamic analysis and understanding of human living as manifest in all ages, past and present. A program of this nature, providing a genuine study of man in his social setting, should help materially to insure the future of our democratic society.

What C.C.C. Men Think About the Social Studies*

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Men in the Civilian Conservation Corps say that something was wrong with their public-school education. This is not news: other groups make the same claim, and we are well aware that there are shortcomings in education. Yet, there is unusual significance in the reactions of C.C.C. men to schooling; significant because of the actual numbers of men concerned, and the potential numbers who may become involved. Many pupils in school today are identical in type to the C.C.C. men, who left school several years ago. Some of the pupils who are now in classes will soon be material for the C.C.C. Will they find the same faults when they look back upon their schooling as the present C.C.C. men do? The Civilian Conservation Corps is suggesting changes in secondary education, and charting new ways for adult education. By drawing out the reactions of the C.C.C. men to their past schooling, and discovering their needs, it is possible to determine certain alterations that should be made in the public schools, and to develop advisable routes for adult education.

In this discussion we are concerned with average C.C.C. men. If a visitor were to select an average C.C.C. man, his background would be similar, in most part, to the type set forth: he has completed grade eight and approximately two years of advanced work in high school, grade school, evening school, or some other institution on the same level; his family is large, and their income small; he has worked at several jobs, even while at school; he is without prospects of work when he leaves the C.C.C. and does not know exactly what he wants to do, can do, and has possibilities of securing. The average person enrolled in the C.C.C. is thinking about himself, his world, and his relation to it. This article centers around the average man enrolled in the C.C.C. and his reactions to a part of his world, his schooling, and, in particular, to the social studies. The following problems will be considered: (1) the ways in which the social studies in school failed the C.C.C. men; (2) what the social studies should have done for them, and (3) what C.C.C. men think about the social studies courses in schools.

It is vital to know these facts because then a cross section of an extremely large group of young men of the United States is presented. It is believed, rightly, that schools are failing these young men. Certainly, it is pertinent to investigate the failure of the social studies since work in this field should have had a very different effect upon the men than that which actually exists. If any part of the schools had reached them at all, it should have been the social

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studies. By "social studies," as the term has been used here, are excluded vocational subjects. The first and most flagrant failure of the social studies has been in the field of occupations. When they are in the camps, the men are eager for information about jobs; they want to know about ways and means that lead from their present situations to something better. They were tossed around before they entered the C.C.C., and they know that they will be tossed about again when they leave. Any insurance against that seesaw condition is valuable. It seems possible that men could have some insurance against that condition when they leave school; certainly the men feel that they should. In some schools, the men report, occupational information is disseminated through various media, but not early enough in the course to prove of any practical help.

It is folly to expect men who have never learned about different occupations to make wise selections, especially when they do not have home guidance of a constructive nature. The schools have failed in this respect, and particularly the social studies—the logical field for such training. It may be that some types of pupils are not receptive to occupational information; yet in the schools are many who, because of circumstances, will be forced early to seek employment. This type of person needs vocational guidance first. If the social studies do not provide this, even if it is for this single group alone, they have been a distinct failure. Just as they have failed to furnish occupational information to the men who most needed it so, also, have they failed to stimulate or to create in the men a sound attitude toward their working world. It is not unnatural, therefore, that these young people should take a purely egoistic attitude toward their work and their working world. If the men can find more in their jobs than earning a given amount of money each day, it redounds both to their own happiness and to social good. The social studies have not helped the C.C.C. men in this respect, and it is not unreasonable to assume that they should have.

The second most notable failure of the social studies lies in not having aroused the interest of the men in current happenings of the world. Consider the vast number of young people in public schools similar in type to those now enrolled in the C.C.C., and one gains some idea of the tremendous impetus that can be added to the cause of thought about one's world. In classrooms, daily, teachers find pupils who perhaps cannot be aroused to an interest in anything; yet this could be changed in good part if proper effort were made. The attitudes of the C.C.C. men reflect the failure of the social studies; the men profess repeatedly that in school their thinking was not directed to such matters. It may be the atmosphere of classrooms that creates in men of this type an indifference to current affairs; but the men, it has been proved, want to know about their world. Once the seemingly impervious crust is broken, their interest can be more readily detected. Definite evidence points to the conclusion that C.C.C. men can be interested in their world, as revealed in the response to a series of questions recently placed before them, and judging by their opinions on various current topics, whether they were interested in the topics in school, and whether or not they gathered information concerning them. Usually, it was found that the men have definite opinions, that they are inter-

ested in many problems of the present day, but that they derived little of their interest or information at school.

CONCRETE REACTIONS

We can consider a few of the items on which the men displayed their reactions. In the field of international relations, they declared that they favor international treaties but that they are dubious about the League of Nations. Crime, they believe, has increased; corruption in public office they find quite common, but they are optimistic concerning future control of it. Essentially, they want in politics whatever is best for the people. War, they believe, may be abolished; in labor problems, they dislike injustices to the workers. In their personal relationships, the family plays the most important rôle. On racial problems, their opinions are quite divided. They are interested in the social studies, but the men cannot find of what help they have been. The schools should have aided on sex problems, they believe, but despite the lack of guidance their standards are high. In the field of industry, the men state that they are not afraid of the rapid changes and possible developments in the occupational world. They are, however, in favor of regulation of industry so that all may have work. The opinions of C.C.C. men on these and other problems convince one that men of this type can become thoroughly interested in their world.

The third marked failure of the social studies lies in not creating a social point of view in the men. It would be expected, no doubt, that if the social studies had not succeeded in arousing the interest of the men in their world that they would also fail to create a social attitude. In matters such as relations to other men, national and international coöperation, civic duties, and government responsibilities, the C.C.C. men have not been stimulated to full consciousness. Although the very intangibleness of a social point of view presents difficulties, it is possible to help pupils acquire a good attitude. Surely every person will have some kind of a social attitude; it is incumbent upon the schools to create a good attitude in the individual toward his society.

As corollaries of these failures, there are several definite things that the social studies should have done for the men in the Civilian Conservation Corps. First of all, the social studies should have provided a great deal of occupational information; men who left school should have been informed regarding a number of different vocations in which they might find suitable openings. They should have been encouraged to make an attempt at analyzing their abilities in relation to their future work. They should have had the experience of selecting an occupation. Many times during their lives these men will have to go through a similar process. Surely the schools will be doing a real service if they offer pupils this training, and do so sufficiently early in the school career so that the pupils who must leave school for economic reasons before graduation will receive the benefit of that experience. Undoubtedly, the best way to create a wise attitude toward athletics, dancing, study, or work is through actual participation in those activities and studies. This is possible because the

group with which we are concerned will be involved in odd jobs outside of school and will be engaged, for the most part, in practical work within the school. If such a set-up is not an actuality, there are still possibilities of achieving the objective through the work in occupations alone. In any event, it would seem to be the responsibility of the social-science teachers to create a sound attitude toward work.

The second real constructive work that the social studies should have done for the C.C.C. men is to stimulate their interest in the world around them. A contact can be made with pupils of this type by starting from their immediate relations with the working world; earning a living is a very practical situation. They do not only need to attack their world relationships from this point, they want to do that. If the work is carried on informally, the probability of success is much greater. Even discussions, if conducted in a formal classroom manner, cannot be assured of much success with pupils of the type found in the C.C.C. camps. For example, if the same disinterested group were well handled, the men would become interested in their world. Pupils of this type would be grateful to teachers for such training when they were done with schooling. Through this interest in the outside world, a social awareness may be aroused. By facing the world problems from the viewpoint of these individual men, it will be possible for the teacher to develop and create not only an understanding of the world but also a good attitude toward it. While it would be unwise to dictate exact procedures for a person to follow, it is best to develop a responsibility for the understanding and wise action of an individual in his world. This can be done, and the social studies in school should do it.

Quite as definite as their present reactions to the world is the attitude of C.C.C. men toward the social studies courses themselves. The men frequently express an interest in the usual courses of history, without any pronounced liking for the more exciting courses, such as problems in democracy, and occupations. In other words, the men like the content of the background courses as well as the more lively present-day problems course. The one great drawback that they have found, however, has been the presentation of the work. The dull methods turn the men against the courses, whereas if the material had been given in a lively, forceful, and informal manner the probability of success would have been much higher. This observation is offered in order to emphasize the writer's own belief that history courses can be taught with great success to men of the C.C.C. type. They state constantly that they are interested in such material, but that they do not care about the method of its presentation in school.

For stimulating spontaneous interest, the modern problems courses are most desirable. But let no one think that these are the only courses in which interest can be aroused. If presented as suggested, social studies courses of any nature, so long as they are valuable, can be taught with success. That is the opinion of C.C.C. men, and judging from observations on the writer's part it seems accurate. C.C.C. men want a good world in which to live, and they want an understanding of, and adjustment to, that world.

Seeing Social Problems First Hand

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A comfortable bus that has room for thirty-two passengers arrives at the campus at eight-thirty in the morning, the classroom for the day. Students fill it, and the day's work begins at eight forty-five; anyone arriving one minute late is marked absent. The next twelve or fifteen hours have been planned carefully: appointments have been made weeks in advance, and confirmed a day or two before the trip. Instructors have checked every inch of the ground to be covered; all the streets are known, every turn planned, and the stopping places decided upon. A large passenger bus headed in the wrong direction down a one-way street presents a situation not easily corrected, and the least confusion in locations may lead to delays in the traffic jungle of a big city. Not a single element of uncertainty can be permitted to rob this laboratory hour of valuable time, nor the students of needed energy. Thus, the first principle of good field work is precision.

The next is unity, and here the difference between a day devoted to seeing social problems first hand and a haphazard excursion lies. Whatever the subject, no disturbing thoughts if possible should be allowed to detract from it. Consider, for example, the field trip having for its theme "levels of living." The first stop was an apartment, uptown, costing \$25,000 a year; the next, an old tenement renting for \$10 a month. Thus a definite contrast was planned at the outset. But upon leaving the lavish dwelling, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, just opposite, caught the eye of the instructor; why not mention it, for the students should know the location of famous institutions. Some of the interesting exhibitions that might be seen are also mentioned. Not wholly unmindful, perhaps, that here were social science students studying housing, the tomb of Perneb was elaborated upon in detail. Conversations on the bus, en route to the next stop, were a composite of Egyptian history, modern housing, creative art, besides the ordinary run of other topics. An irrelevant detour had utterly destroyed an impression that had been splendidly planned, and a laboratory period was turned into an excursion with its accompanying conglomeration of impressions.

Then again, it is often assumed that the normal is too commonplace to deserve attention. In September, 1934, all freshmen majoring in social studies at the State Teachers College at Montclair were asked to fill in a questionnaire; they were requested to state the maximum number of miles they had traveled from their birthplaces. At the same time, they were given a list of fifty-two social institutions and situations and asked in each case to state whether or not they had observed the item described. In the list were included an automobile factory, a telephone exchange, a lighthouse, a first-class railroad train, a large city-hotel kitchen, a mission house, a criminal court, a tenement renting for

about \$10 or \$15 a month, etc. Forty-nine students answered the questionnaire: seventy per cent had traveled less than 500 miles from their birthplaces, and of these a quarter had traveled less than 300 miles, or just about a day's automobile journey from home; forty-four out of the forty-nine students had observed less than half of the items listed, twenty had observed less than a quarter of them. If this group is at all typical, evidently there is a wide range of observations to be found in the normal currents of social, economic, and political life that offer many new and varied experiences to most of our young people. The pathological should be observed only in proportion to its social significance. A well balanced itinerary should not be overweighted.

Due thought, also, should be given to the suitability of the itinerary as a whole. A classroom recitation that is over the heads of the pupils is, at worst, a waste of time and effort; similar procedure in the field may prove disastrous. The writer has taken junior, senior, and graduate students of college rank to various religious services in New York and in doing so he believes has helped to give them a deeper sympathy and more comprehensive understanding of alien cultural influences in American life. Even with the most careful preparation, however, a high-school class would have reacted differently, under similar circumstances. Younger pupils would have seen, perhaps, only the ludicrous in what to others is a sacred ritual. Likewise, in studies of unemployment and destitution, the depths of human distress and misery likely to be witnessed are sufficiently difficult an experience for adults to bear; immature youngsters certainly should not be submitted to the test. First-hand observations are vivid, and emotional reactions correspondingly strong. A task of magnitude is imposed upon the instructor, therefore, to select materials suitable for his particular group. This does not mean that only mature students should see social problems first-hand. After a few hours spent in an Oriental center—seeing a Chinese altar, and a part of a Chinese play; hearing a bit of Chinese music, and indulging in a real Oriental lunch—the writer has observed junior high school pupils react most intelligently to an exposition by a young Chinese college student on "The Funny Things Americans Do." Younger pupils can appreciate quite as keenly as their elders living conditions among various income groups. Economic and political subjects, too, can be selected in keeping with any age level. Indeed, it is the writer's belief that if, in any given community, all the possibilities for significant observations of actual life situations were canvassed carefully, a sufficient variety would be discovered, offering opportunities for examination at every grade level, from the kindergarten up.

GOOD ORGANIZATION NECESSARY

Attaining these requisites of good field work in the social sciences—precision, unity, balance, and suitability—depends in no small way upon good organization. An abundance of readily available material from which one can draw to make up an itinerary, for example, is essential. This requires a constant reaching out for new contacts. Hardly a week passes, and never a vacation, that

the writer does not make one or more calls with this intention in mind; these visits are of an introductory character. The nature of the field type of education is explained and coöperation solicited. If assistance is forthcoming, all relevant data—name of organization, individual's name, location, street directions, nature of observations, time to allot, and similar information—are filed in a card index, and cross-referenced under subject, location, etc. Data are added to the cards from time to time, such as dates of calls, student impressions, points to emphasize, cordiality of reception, and other relevant details. Maps are as great an aid in gaining precision as card indexes in assuring unity, balance, and suitability. The classroom walls are lined with detailed street maps of the entire Metropolitan region. A logical sequence of observations usually must give way to the exigencies of geographical location. Nevertheless, the maximum logic and the minimum travel can be assured by plotting a proposed trip on a map beforehand, and thus visualizing the itinerary as a whole.

Starting with this kind of organization, planning a day's observations becomes a simple matter. About three weeks before the proposed trip, the cards are consulted and a tentative itinerary prepared. Letters asking permission to call are written; substitutions are made when necessary, until the final itinerary evolves. Then it is mimeographed. Three days prior to the planned trip, reminders are mailed; and immediately following the trip, letters of thanks are written to all those who have coöperated in making the observations possible. Excluding those of a purely historical nature, thus far we have worked out ten well defined themes for field observations in the social sciences. These may be listed as follows:

SUBJECTS	OBSERVATIONS
A. Economic.	
1. Banks and Banking.	Local commercial and savings banks. Local clearing house. Large city commercial bank and clearing house. Federal Reserve Bank. Safety deposit vaults.
2. Markets.	Early morning fresh fruit and green vegetable markets. Fish market. Meat markets. Fresh poultry markets. Push-cart markets. Stock and Commodity exchanges.
3. Working Conditions.	Minute division of labor and conveyor-belt system seen in an automobile-assembly plant. Batteries of automatic machines such as seen in the manufacture of screw-machine products. Foundry. Hotel kitchen. Newspaper plant. Garment factories. Textile mill. Sweatshop.
4. Transportation and Communication.	Inside workings of a great metropolitan railroad terminal. Airport. Behind the scenes of a large city post office. Ocean liner. Transcontinental express train. Telephone exchange. Telegraph headquarters. Broadcasting studio.
B. Political.	
1. Government Services.	Navy Yard. Weather bureau. Military post. Lighthouse. Coast-guard station. Political clubs. Municipal services such as health, fire, etc. Large city morgue.

C. Social.

1. Levels of Living. Middle-class suburban homes. Luxurious city and suburban homes. Coöperative apartments. Limited dividend developments. Hotels and rooming houses. Tenements. Resorts of the destitute, such as missions, municipal lodging houses, and squatters' shacks.
2. Racial Adjustments. Urban Negro homes of upper and lower-income groups. Negro churches, libraries and recreational centers, art studio, and business institutions.
3. Foreign Cultures. Synagogues, cathedrals, pizzeria, hofbrau, theater and folk festivals, native schools, assimilation agencies. Oriental centers.
4. Prevention and Treatment of Crime. Police headquarters and radio room. Teletype machines. County jails and penitentiaries. Court trials. State prisons and reformatories. Juvenile courts.
5. State Institutions. School for the Deaf. Hospital for mental diseases. Agricultural station. State capitol. County court house. Poor farm.

To such observations as these, much interest can be added by case studies. A week or so ago, in our study of the prevention and treatment of crime, we visited an old type county jail in the morning; later we were conducted through the buildings and grounds of a large penitentiary. By noon the group was ready for a good lunch and a reasonable rest period. The rest period was devoted to hearing the experiences of a man who had spent seventeen years of his life as a convict in various prisons throughout the country, talking with him, and asking questions. In this way, during the past winter, we have come in direct contact with evicted tenants, a portion of the unemployed seeking public relief, representatives of various racial groups, workers engaged in many fields of activity, labor leaders, ward politicians, and many others whom you would never meet in the seclusion of the classroom.

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED

It is asked often whether by calling many times upon the same institutions we do not wear out our welcome; whether the intimate glimpses of home life afforded us are not, in fact, unwarranted intrusions; whether a certain amount of resentment is not engendered by our observing the inmates of a lodging house, the callers at a mission, or the worshippers at an alien religious service. The way needs to be paved in every case, but most people are genuinely glad of the opportunity to contribute to public education. Sometimes they need to be convinced that they have something to contribute, but once that fact is assured their coöperation is unbounded. "You have something to teach us that we cannot learn from books" is the writer's stock phrase. The derelicts in a Bowery mission nod their heads in cordial assent; the poverty-stricken housewife in an old law tenement agrees; the social workers know that it is only too true; and some of the largest corporations in the United States open their doors to us. This does not imply that we are never met with a negative response. In general, however, the sincere cordiality, genuine interest, and readiness to help on the part of those with whom we have come in contact is nothing short of inspiring.

Strange to say, the greatest difficulty in seeing social problems first hand is with the school authorities, not with the public. The writer has a notion that sometimes it is thought that the youngsters learn too much; more often it is the tradition that formal education necessarily must consist of sitting in a classroom for forty-minute periods and changing subjects at every clang of the bell. Some instructors feel, too, that the prospects for a happy and successful life are utterly ruined if one recitation in the subjunctive mood or concomitant variations is omitted. It is not infrequent that athletic teams travel a hundred miles or more to play one game of football, but an afternoon spent in seeing how other people live or work, or in gaining first-hand information about prisons, or what the state is doing for its less fortunate citizens, such as the deaf, the blind, the insane, and the pauper, is for some reason too often considered out of place in a well-regulated educational system.

A more serious difficulty is the matter of the teacher's time. From the standpoint of the hours necessary for preparation and execution, field studies add tremendously to a teacher's schedule. Indeed for most instructors in high schools today, facing overloaded schedules and crowded classes, the situation is simply impossible. From a survey made in this state about a year ago, it appears that most teachers of social studies believe in this type of education; only a few attempt it. Many more, certainly, would do so willingly and enthusiastically if the necessary time were available. It would seem that the solution lies in putting social-studies field work on the same basis as laboratory periods in physics, chemistry, or biology—that is, considering two hours of laboratory work equivalent to one hour in the classroom. At Montclair a beginning has been made in this direction. A regular sixty-hour laboratory course in the social sciences is offered, and the class meets on Saturdays. There are five two-hour lecture periods, making ten hours, and ten ten-hour laboratory periods, totaling one hundred hours. The laboratory periods count one-half, making the course sixty academic hours. Attendance is compulsory, definite accomplishments are prescribed, and high standards of performance are maintained. Completion of satisfactory work entitles the student to four points of academic credit, and the instructor is given four hours of credit on his schedule. As a matter of fact, the laboratory periods actually average closer to fifteen hours and the amount of preparation necessary for these fifteen-hour laboratory periods is out of all proportion to the time allowance granted, but at least this is a definite start in the right direction and makes the work possible.

The matter of costs is another difficulty to be surmounted. Transportation is the largest item, but not the only one. Small fees are necessary here and there, ability to make occasional donations adds much satisfaction to the work, and a moderate honorarium offered speakers saves the embarrassment of getting something for nothing. Meals en route, usually two, are another item not to be overlooked, especially as properly selected eating places can often be used as a part of the observations on the itinerary, and sometimes these are rather costly. There is nothing novel in a situation in which the cost of education exceeds the ability

to pay for it; and the answer is the usual one, it must subsidize. Our cost figures at this institution indicate, however, that the amount which has to be advanced over and above what the students can pay need be no greater than the sums expended each year in maintaining laboratory equipment in the physical sciences, if, indeed, it need be as much.

ADVANTAGES GAINED

Disruption of schedules, lack of sufficient teaching time, and cost are all formidable obstacles standing in the way of seeing social problems first hand. Sufficient benefits must be shown to overcome them and this is difficult to do, at least in figures. Many worth-while movements offering the most permanent benefits, however, defy measurement. Tredwell Smith, in an unpublished manuscript, reports quantitative tests in racial attitudes carried on at Columbia University with groups that were brought in direct contact with various phases of life in the Negro section of Harlem. A substantial change of attitude towards greater tolerance seems to be shown. Unfortunately, however, there is no comparison with any control group occupied with the same problem exclusively in the classroom. But those of us who daily come in contact with students studying social problems, in the classroom as well as by field observations, need no figures to convince us of the inestimable value of field work. Meeting and talking with people in different environments, seeing, first hand, the unfathomable intricacies of our economic life, witnessing directly the deprivations imposed by poverty, and appreciating through actual observation the great contributions of foreign cultures to American life cannot leave one untouched. There is a certain emotional appeal, the effects of which are lasting even though particular circumstances may be forgotten. There is developed a social consciousness and sympathy, a tolerant attitude, and a philosophy quick to condemn unbridled self interest, that is hard to gain in the aloofness of the classroom. For prospective teachers of the social studies this type of education is particularly important. Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt says, effectively:

It is axiomatic that you cannot give what you haven't got and if the amount of education that we give our public-school teachers is three to four years spent in a normal school or state college not very far away from their homes and then they return to those homes to teach, it is obvious that they will take back very little that is new and fresh to the youngsters who study under them.

More and more educators are demanding teachers with a social viewpoint, and ability to vitalize the social and economic problems of the day. Readily to recall vivid, first-hand experiences gives the teacher a power to interest and an ability to influence others that are seldom attained from books alone. If any project were proposed as conducive to financial profit as seeing social problems first hand is to good citizenship, it probably would be planned, financed, and freed of all administrative obstacles in less than twenty-four hours. But public affairs move slower. Yet, it is possible that during the next decade we shall hear less about developing life situations in the classroom and more about expanding the notion of a classroom to include life itself as it exists in the world about us.

The Cultivation of Social Interests Among Older High School Students

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Civics, as taught in a mid-western high school, aroused in a senior of sixteen a desire to be socially useful. He writes: "When I was studying civics, our teacher persistently told of the evils of graft and corruption in our courts. In some instances specific examples were given of people who had been wronged. It seems to me the more a person hears about this sort of thing, the more it gets under his skin when he realizes that the only place where one can really expect justice is full of corruption. It has been my ambition ever since that course to remedy that situation. I don't know how I am going to do it, but I feel confident that some day I am going to have the chance."

Inquiries were conducted in 1919 and 1933, as related in an earlier article,¹ to determine, as far as might be practicable, the extent to which third- and fourth-year high school students in the United States are interested in combating crime, disease and poverty, and in building a better world. The major question of the inquiry, as may be remembered, was formulated as follows: "Previously to the present school year, did you ever have, for a period of at least several days, a strong ambition to give your life in helping certain classes of people who are suffering from poverty, ignorance, disease, vice, injustice or crime, or in preventing these evils? (Yes or No)"

Sixty-six per cent of the 3769 students covered by the later inquiry and 59 per cent of the 975 students in the earlier one replied in the affirmative. A check was made in the later study, as may be recalled, to test the sincerity and validity of these answers and it was found even then that over 50 per cent revealed substantial evidence of a real desire to be helpful.

After these students had considered just what they hoped they could do, and had stated how old they were when they first had these interests, they were asked: "What led you to have this ambition?" The table on page 29 provides a classification of the replies of 2498 students in 1933 and of 578 in 1919 (the 66 per cent and 59 per cent respectively) who reported social ambitions.

It will be observed that a majority of students in each group reported some kind of *observation* as the cause of their social ambitions.² It may be desirable, therefore, to give a number of these replies. All of them are from the later study.

A youth of nineteen, living in an industrial city, says that as a young boy he had "always had a great liking to wander." "I have wandered," he wrote, "to

¹ Harry H. Moore, "Autobiographical Sketches of High School Students Revealing Their Social Impulses," *The Social Studies*, XXVI (November, 1935), 433-443.

² As will be remembered, we are discussing here only ascribed causes, and not the etiology of the subject.

places where families live worse than dogs, and I have seen babies suffer, and this has softened my heart plenty, as I would do anything for babies who have come into this world through no fault of their own, and they have to suffer the consequences." A girl of seventeen says she was influenced by "seeing people on the street with no place to go for home and nothing to eat." One girl took a trip to Europe at the age of eight and was impressed by the living conditions of the lower classes there. A boy of seventeen in an eastern city was prompted to improve conditions by "seeing dirty, crowded conditions in my own city and in larger cities around me." Many of the students were influenced by seeing other children come to school poorly dressed and hungry.

	<i>Per Cent Indicating Cause in 1933</i>	<i>Per Cent Indicating Cause in 1919</i>
General observation	40	58
Single observation	17	
Reading	14	16
Some one person	8	5
Home	8	4
Church and Sunday School	6	4
Public School	4	4
Motion pictures	2	3
Lectures	2	3
Miscellaneous	19	5
Cause not given	12 ^a	3 ^a

Here is a first sight of poverty by a girl eleven years old which seems to have left a vivid impression: "It was one night after school that I went to a playmate's house and she asked me if I wanted something to eat and I thought she meant some kind of a 'goody,' but instead she gave me a piece of hard, dry, butterless bread. I asked where she kept her butter and she said she was sorry, but they only had butter about once a month. After following her upstairs, I saw two beds in one room (the only room upstairs) and I asked her where the rest of them slept, and she said that they all slept together."

"While walking on Broadway in New York, a middle-aged man happened to stop me and asked me if I had a penny I could spare. Of course, I gave him the penny, and he thanked me as if it were a gold piece. He seemed to be a decent sort of person, and said he hated to ask for money, but that he had none left. I felt especially sorry for him and asked if I could do anything to help him. He then asked me if I could direct him to a certain street. This I did, and again he thanked me. The reason I should like to help him is because he was different from the usual bum one finds on Broadway. He was as nice a fellow as I have ever seen and my pity was aroused because of this. If I ever again meet him, I

^a Each column in the table adds to more than 100 per cent because some students gave more than one cause.

certainly would do all I could to rehabilitate him in the world." This story is from a boy of sixteen in an eastern city high school. A number of these young people, especially the girls, become interested in beggars.

"One day I saw a baby taken sick. The mother called in the city doctor; he said nothing was wrong with the child. The next morning the child grew worse. The mother again called in the doctor; he said to put her to bed and she would be all right. The next morning the child was dead. It had died of pneumonia. That is why I want to be a nurse to help poor little babies to live, not to die." Thus writes a girl of eighteen in an industrial city.

Following are a number of experiences expressed in the briefest terms possible, most of them typical of others: a visit to a slum at the age of fourteen; watching people go to a free soup line; seeing people in a hospital for the insane; encountering a little girl about eight years old who could neither speak nor hear; losing a friend by death from cancer; observing "so many people with families too big for their income." And here is a single act of a nurse, remembered three years: a girl writes, "I saw the nurse leaning over the bed of my mother helping her try and forget a severe pain she had. More and more I decided to become a nurse."

II

Reading, it will be remembered, seems to have been, among both groups, the second most important influence leading to social ambitions. In most instances, it was a book; in a few cases, magazine or newspaper reading. Thus, *Mother India*⁴ made one student desirous of becoming a teacher in India; and a magazine article, telling of several older girls who had given up their society life to become district nurses in the Blue Ridge mountains, made a definite impression on one eastern high school girl. A single cartoon on Christmas Day showing a humble home and a poor family being given food, made a lasting impression. Among the books mentioned are the following: *The Making of An American*,⁵ *Twenty Years at Hull House*,⁶ *The World of William Clissold*,⁷ *Microbe Hunters*,⁸ *Mother India*,⁹ *Twenty Thousand Years in Sing Sing*,¹⁰ *The Good Earth*,¹¹ *A Mind That Found Itself*,¹² and the lives of Pasteur, Livingston, Lincoln, and others.

The influence of some special person, while it ranks far below direct observation, was the third most important cause of social impulses. In the later study, eight per cent report such an influence, and in the earlier one, five per cent. "My ideal of a true lawyer is Mr. . . . , who could not be influenced by petty

⁴ Katherine Mayo, *Mother India*. London: Jonathan Cape, Ltd., 1932.

⁵ Jacob Riis, *The Making of An American*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919.

⁶ Jane Addams, *Twenty Years at Hull House*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916.

⁷ H. G. Wells, *The World of William Clissold*. London: Benn, 1929.

⁸ Paul H. DeKruif, *Microbe Hunters*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1932.

⁹ See footnote 4.

¹⁰ Lewis Edward Lawes, *Twenty Thousand Years in Sing Sing*. New York: A. L. Burt Co., 1933.

¹¹ Pearl Buck, *The Good Earth*. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1934.

¹² Clifford W. Beers, *A Mind That Found Itself*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1931.

politicians and also who has made an honest and worth-while living. He has also helped much to beautify his community. If I ever become a lawyer, I hope I can serve my country as the late Mr. . . . has done." Thus writes a boy of eighteen, a senior in an eastern high school.

One girl had a "marvelous Sunday school teacher who fascinated us with the good an American may do in India." Another remembers for six years a very lovely nurse who had taken care of her. A boy decided to enter the profession of medicine through the influence of an uncle who was a doctor. Another plans to go into Y.M.C.A. work, due to the influence of one of the secretaries. One boy in a small town writes, "I will frankly tell you I met a young lady. . . . That caused me to see to some extent the great need."

The *home*, including of course, father and mother, appears to have exerted the next most effective influence. One boy's father explained to him the wrongs done to the farmers, such as the "gradual reduction in prices paid for farm products." He hopes to be in a position later "to give the farmer equal education and equal chances with the city-born people." A girl writes, "I helped my mother when she went around to the poorer classes, and I saw how appreciative they were." In two instances, at least, the influence of the family, from the present point of view, has been negative. One girl of fourteen had been in the slums and had worried for weeks about what she had seen. She writes, "My parents finally convinced me I could do nothing about it."

The *church and Sunday school* constitute a source of inspiring influence. A boy of seventeen in an eastern high school went to a church where "the minister gave me confirmation instruction for two years and made me see life, well, as it really was. I know that from that time on, I have been a changed person." He says he would enjoy being a minister or missionary, but may not take up this work as he would have to attend college and study Latin. A girl in the west hopes to win a medical degree and "bring medical relief to plague-covered Africa." A considerable number of young people seem to have become interested in missionary work.

Particularly important, from the present point of view, is the sociological work of the church and Sunday school. In a small eastern town a church "made a survey of the poor people" of its denomination, and in a large city of the middle west another church "studied the poor classes of people." The church and the public school rank about equally in the tabulation, even though the former has much less contact with youth than does the latter.

The *motion picture*, widely criticized at the time of the inquiry, seems to have been almost as effective as the public school in arousing the social interests of young people. Various crime movies had a potent influence in the case of a senior boy of nineteen in a small eastern town. He writes: "My day dreams were taken up with this idea (and of course girls). My idea was to organize a vigilant committee in every city, of any proportion that is. The city government would give us the right to wipe out the crime gangs without hindrance—that is the beginning of the impracticability. There isn't a city that would give us permission. Having

wiped out crime, the next stage was to set up a coast guard made up of fishing boats. To let the men who really knew the waters who had been living in that environment all their lives and knew the smugglers' tricks—clear them out. But this was a day dream!" This "day dream" appears to have been indulged in some three years earlier. He writes that he does not entertain this ambition now, that it is too impractical. "Crime has eaten its way into the cycle of government."

"Uncle Tom's Cabin" made one girl want to "prevent the injustice done to people of the colored race," and "The Lawyer Man" led a boy to become interested in defense of "the poor who cannot afford lawyers." He plans to enter the law. "I am a Fugitive from a Chain Gang" was mentioned more frequently than other pictures. Others referred to specifically are: Arrowsmith, Nagana, The Valiant, The Wet Parade, Jackie Coogan's Pictures, News Films.

III

We now return to the effect of the public school. Students from one high school gave baskets of food to the poor and a girl of seventeen remembers the experience for three years. She writes, "I was very much impressed by the terrible conditions we found. I had never realized before that there could be such persons in our town." A course in the Problems of American Democracy led one girl to want to improve conditions. "A special study of juvenile institutions" for a sociology class aroused another girl; the same subject led still another to an interest in crime. A city girl of seventeen writes that a study of social problems seems "to dissolve the selfishness in many of us."

Sociology has awakened social interests among boys as well. One of sixteen apparently had never known much about poverty, disease and crime until the first day in class. He writes: "After receiving our textbook, I thumbed through mine, became so interested that I read part of it in my next assembly." Another boy became interested in helping others through the preparation of a paper on the life of a local civil-service reform hero. Among the social studies, civics and sociology are most frequently mentioned.

Biology, other natural sciences, and English have been responsible for social ambitions quite as frequently as the social sciences. While no tabulation according to subjects has been attempted, one definitely gains this impression in examining the papers. Here, for instance, is a boy of seventeen in the south who developed a desire to alleviate poverty and disease, through the study of chemistry; and an eastern girl of seventeen who, three years previously, had studied general science and expressed the "hope that I might some day save people's lives and relieve them of disease." A course in chemistry stimulated a girl's desire to become a nurse; and it was a high-school band which led one boy into contact with a poor family with eight children, to whom he and his fellow musicians had taken food. Biology caused several, as one might expect, to become interested in research and other branches of medicine.

In general, instances in which school subjects have stirred up social ambitions are relatively few. Only four per cent of the 2498 students in the 1933 study,

and the same proportion of the 578 in the earlier study, it will be remembered, indicate that the school was the source of their social ambitions. It is probable that if the ambitions which had been developed during the current year had been permitted inclusion by the statement of terms used in the question,¹³ the school would have been cited in a larger proportion of cases. Moreover, it is possible that the school should have received credit when various observations and books have been specified as the causes of creating these ambitions. Yet in the latter case no allusion at all is made to the school; if it had played a significant part some reference to it would most likely have been made. It should be emphasized, that when a school has been mentioned, the social studies are not entitled to all the credit; in a considerable proportion of cases, the natural sciences and other subjects have been the causes of growing social interests.

Can these statistics and the other data in the tabulation, ascribing the causes of social ambitions, be accurate? An increasingly large percentage of schools, presumably, are teaching social-problems courses. Should it not be expected that a much larger proportion of students would be inspired by these courses to a desire to assist the unfortunate and make this a better world?

Let us turn from statistical data to autobiographical material. A reading of the large number of personal sketches submitted tends in general to support our earlier conclusion, that the school has not developed in many students an interest in the pressing problems of American democracy. It has not stirred them emotionally, nor has it produced the kind of understanding regarding these problems which might properly be expected.

Three kinds of situations may be considered.

1) Among one group of students the social studies appear to have led to the social ambition or to have augmented it. An instance of this kind was given at the beginning of this article. A statement from a boy of eighteen also may be considered:

We studied the congestion of the slums in sociology. This study and the fact that I have seen some pictures of these places and have seen similar places as these in reality have led me to the conclusion that we, as American citizens, should relieve this crowded poverty and suffering; how, I do not know. I only know that there is a way for every one to have fresh air and sunlight, and that we all should provide these things not only for the relief of poverty itself, but to do away with breeding places of crime.

2) In this group of students the original impulse seems to have been inspired by an experience or observation so dramatic and vivid that later academic study has made little change in the individual's outlook. There appear to have been a large number of cases of this kind. Only two may be given here, the first from an eastern city student of seventeen, and the second from a western student of sixteen:

After reading some of the more radical books, and after observing the terrible conditions in some of the slums and other neighborhoods, I have come to the conclusion that something must be wrong with our present system of government. It was not the books that so influenced me, but

¹³ See earlier article, op. cit., 434.

the actual seeing of these conditions. I do not wish to have changes by bloodshed, but if conditions go on as they are, after all, the President has not shown us much change for any better. The present showing up of the income tax trials show that the rich practically rule, and get away with everything.

As far as I can remember back, mother has always been ill; long periods at a time. Other relations have also suffered. In fact, I have seen and heard of so much suffering that every thought that I have is leading me on to offer my services to the human race of people to the best of my ability. I feel that I can and must take a medical course, if there is a way at all.

3) In this group of cases, social ambitions have been given up, although academic study with ample opportunity for observation outside the school might possibly have encouraged the student to retain and, perhaps, develop the ambition. Three illustrative cases follow, one from a western boy of eighteen, another from an eastern girl of nineteen, a third from a boy of sixteen in a western high school in the order given.

Several times in my life, I have had a great desire to see a person accused of crime who is innocent, get a "square deal." So many of these law officers and judges, while they are supposed to mete out justice, are merely an example of graft and corruption, and have absolutely no right to occupy the bench. Of course, it would be absolutely impossible for me, for instance, to try to expose some of these practices, so I have come to the conclusion that I might as well forget it.

I live at home and did the same thing day after day until I thought I should have to do something or burst. I dreamed about finding cures for people and making them whole again and then having become famous, but not being aware of the fact so that I showed off. I have since learned something about the world and know that it takes hard work and is not easy to accomplish something big. I do not have enough ambition or desire in life to make me think about this any more. I am getting to accept life and live only because I am here. If you have your own ideas, people laugh at you and think you are crazy. It is too hard to fight uphill.

I have played with boys at certain times that were crippled and others that acted a little "off." When I was fourteen my family and I were touring Oklahoma. We stopped off at Vinita, and while we were there, somebody suggested that we visit the "Nut House." The place is on the outside of the town and surrounded by a huge wall. Inside the compound were people that were acting "nutty." Other people there acted natural. When I first got a look at these poor, jabbering idiots, I was struck with pity, and in my heart there swelled a desire to form a good foundation in junior high and high school to study to be a doctor in college. After that I wanted to form a medicine that would act on these people's feverish brains and cure them. But after I got in high school, the ambition slowly dissolved. My own worries and doubts outweighed my desire. My studies and my hobbies (such as wrestling) took up my spare time.

At least in two instances, the influence of the school seems to have definitely weakened the social impulse—one a boy of eighteen in an eastern city, and another a girl of seventeen in a western town.

Certain revelations in a History course at school shattered youthful ideals and necessitated fashioning of a new and better philosophy. During this period I thought that perhaps I might be able to do something to alleviate the wrongs that had been exposed to me. Since then I have come to the conclusion that I could do some other job better. I would still like to see the things mentioned above accomplished and to aid in doing them in any way I can.

In these particular trying times of depression it is impossible to get away from the fact that there are persons much more unfortunate than you are, and you yearn to help them. But you are powerless to do anything about feeble-mindedness, poverty, etc. The study of Sociology and Economics also helped to open my eyes. I'm rather a fatalist and believe that things just are.

In both the present article and the earlier one containing autobiographical material, the reader has been able to see that, while the attitudes of these young people are obviously naïve, they express themselves with an unusual degree of frankness and sincerity. In the earlier article we discussed the conclusion that older high-school students, as a group, have little knowledge of the social, economic, and political conditions they desire to remedy, and little or no comprehension of the importance of working with others in attaining such ends.

If we now consider the material set forth here, together with the autobiographical data, can we determine who is to blame for this lack of knowledge and understanding?

It is clear, is it not, that while there appears to be a strong desire in the hearts of many young people to be socially useful, the school is not responsible in most cases for such desires. It must also be clear that when, through experiences outside the school, boys and girls develop interests in social problems, the school fails to help them understand those problems. Indeed it may provide a glib sophistication instead of sympathetic understanding.

Consider the case of the girl of nineteen who was living at home and doing the same thing day after day until she thought she "should have to do something or burst." She dreamed "about finding cures for people and making them whole again." Then, later, came disillusionment. "If you have your own ideas," she writes, "people laugh at you and think you are crazy. It is too hard to fight uphill." And, take the case of the boy who would organize a vigilance committee in every city of the land, and wipe out gangs of criminals, and then set up a coast-guard of fishing boats to catch smugglers; he gave up the idea as only a day dream. "It was too impracticable," he writes. These and many other young people have become disillusioned because the school "let them down." If, through well planned work in the social studies, these boys and girls had learned more about the nature of the evils they sought to abolish and the methods which have been used by experienced persons, their naïve ambitions might have developed into practical plans.

The school and the community have been too far apart. Most high schools apparently do not provide a way by which their older students may study the problems of democracy. When a school does attempt to do so, it depends too much on textbooks. They do not stir the imagination and arouse in students a desire to build a better world. If the work of the school has been effective, it usually has been due to a teacher with warm personality and understanding together with resourcefulness in using to advantage a variety of materials and numerous opportunities for observation outside the school.

A beginning has been made in providing, for the use of high schools, museum material, exhibits, motion and sound pictures, and radio equipment. All these should help to make more vivid the teaching of civics, economics, sociology and other courses in the problems of American democracy. More important, there are within a few blocks or a few miles of the school building, industries and markets, slums and housing projects, jails and prisons, city councils, state legisla-

tures and courts, as well as the various eleemosynary institutions. Only relatively few schools are so isolated that visits to these places of vital human interest cannot be arranged. All third- and fourth-year students should have the benefit of some direct observation. Individual students choosing special projects in the social studies may wish additional and closer contacts. Preparations for excursions should be made in advance, and followed up by adequate opportunity for discussion. It is a real shock to a boy or girl—a more serious matter than a sophisticated adult may imagine—to approach the Senate in Washington with visions of Daniel Webster addressing a crowded chamber, only to find but a half dozen members in their seats, two or three of them reading newspapers and all of them ignoring a speech intended only for publication and circulation among constituents. The proper planning of trips will go a long way in preventing the disillusionment which accompanies such experiences, and in utilizing them for the guiding of youth into activities of real usefulness.

In the past, we have raised generation after generation in the tradition of pioneering and selfish individualism. Success has been measured in most social groups by the amount of wealth a man might acquire. Money-making came to be considered as good in itself, writes John Dewey;¹⁴ it took on the aspect of a moral virtue. Before the World War, this standard was so widely accepted that it would have been superfluous to affirm it. Education in the United States until now has been adapted largely to this period of individualism. Education was the key to "making one's way in life," to "getting on" and "getting ahead." "It was enough for the school to equip the individual with the tools of learning," continues Dr. Dewey, "and to fire him with ambition and zeal to get on. His real education came in contact with others and in struggles with the forces of nature." But now we are passing into a new era when little opportunity for advancement is open to individuals. We live in a society becoming increasingly coöperative. "Education must cultivate the social spirit . . . even more assiduously than it cultivated the individual ambition for material success in the past. . . . Instead of imbuing individuals with the idea that the goal is to sharpen their powers so they can gain success personally, they must be trained in capacity for intelligent organization so that they can unite with others in a common struggle against poverty, disease, ignorance, credulity, low standards of appreciation and enjoyment."

The data set forth here indicate that we have promising material with which to work. We have not tried, however, to train even one generation imbued with these ideals.

¹⁴ John Dewey, "Some Aspects of Modern Education," *School and Society*, XXXIV (October 31, 1931), 583-584.

Teaching History Backwards

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History teaching has certainly been far from successful, largely because we have been teaching "history." Teachers are so swamped by the mass of material in political history, the material resulting from the present craze for biography, and the pressure for social, economic, and cultural developments, that they have had no time to coördinate these phases and really to establish their standards.

Consider the attitudes evinced by pupils, but a semester ago under our tutelage, who now and then drop in to repeat the platitudes of their father's daily paper, as though they had arrived at these conclusions after profound thought, trying to win their point by sheer force of volume and sufficient repetition. Educated, cultured citizens are frequently not far behind our erstwhile pupils in their expressions of opinions on current problems.

After all, what is to be expected? No doubt every one of these people could repeat "1870," if not immediately, certainly after a bit of prodding or of research. Doubtless, they knew of the Reign of Terror and Treaty of Versailles. They may even have heard of the Fashoda Incident and the National Workshops. But is this what one wants to have his pupils carry from the classroom into adult life? Are these the essentials? No, the emphasis must be changed.

We must constantly keep in mind that we are today educating for tomorrow with the material of yesterday. The event in itself is important only as it is a part of the great movement of civilization. It serves its purpose only if it helps in an understanding of the present as a prognostication of the future. How can we give an adolescent, so vitally concerned with the moment, a series of facts of fifty years ago and expect him to see their value today? Yes, we can point out the connection, but what of the future? We will not have these youths under our tutelage when the next problem comes along. We must so prepare them that they can interpret it themselves, and we must never for a moment let them forget or overlook the progression of history.

Therefore, teaching history backwards is effective. For example, take the dramatic episode of the moment, and when in our life time has there not been a dramatic moment? Encourage the pupils to bring in their newspaper comment, to discuss the problem; and while they are doing this, show them that they do not fully comprehend the situation because they do not see what is back of it. While they are still eager, work back, keeping the current problem always before them, but illustrate that it has a background. Show that this period is only the natural result of a preceding period, that in turn developed out of an earlier situation and so on, until the pupil of his own accord sees that history is a constantly developing progression—each part dependent on the other, and all making for unbroken continuity.

THE NEXT STEP

With this fully worked out, we are ready for the next step. What can we expect of the future, the present situation being what it is, produced as it was? The pupil has not been told that there is progress, he has actually discovered it and, further, he has seen that despite occasional retrogressions, progress has the possibility of infinity. Under direction, he has tested his ability to discover what is back of a problem before forming an opinion concerning it, and he has exercised his capability of looking into the future. Further, his study has led him to sources, into the bypaths of the arts and sciences, and to the amassing and organizing of facts which he would otherwise have never encountered. Why does this method of teaching produce better results along these lines? The pupil learns and remembers what he has use for. Because the pupil has a definite purpose in mind, he wants to know *why*, and *how*, not because his teacher told him to, but because the moment itself is so dramatic that it demands every detail, or because he fears making a foolish prognostication and embarrassing himself before his peers.

How can a pupil evaluate a series of facts the effects of which he does not see? If he has worked back from today to those facts, he realizes that they are not isolated, but a foundation for the present. If they are not a foundation for the present, either positively or negatively, they should not be included in the course. Seeing the facts as a culmination of a series of events is valueless unless that culmination is vital, and I maintain it is not vital to the high-school youth if it is not linked up to what he is acutely conscious of. The fact, now being in its place in the scheme of things, can be evaluated—it has contributed to progress, or has been detrimental to mankind.

But there are other objectives in teaching history. Each teacher must make her own list and keep it before her. The writer calls your attention to those drawn up by the New York City committee on the reorganization of modern history courses: intellectual curiosity, ability to analyze a situation, historical mindedness, social mindedness, international mindedness, willingness to be in minority, a sympathy with uplifting forces, and belief in the possibility of infinite progress.¹ Every one of these can best be developed by teaching history backwards.

How can one be sure that he will actually have covered the period of 1850 to 1935 by the middle of June? How can one be sure that the pupils have mastered the customary subjects, as nationalism, imperialism, internationalism? It is the same old argument set forth years ago: if page 62 is not studied after 61, how can you be sure that 61 will be studied at all? Set out to do it, and do it, that is all. The teacher must have made a tentative list of units to be mastered. After all, the writer doubts seriously if, in five months' time, something so new will occur that a special unit will be required for it; certainly this winter's events, be they Manchukuo or Hitlerism, fitted in nicely. The order of the units is all

¹ Herbert D. A. Donovan, "The New Course in European History in New York City High Schools," *Historical Outlook*, XXIV (April, 1933), 186-191.

that may have to be changed. In a period so short as the one under consideration in a semester's course, the movements are so interrelated that seldom can one disentangle cause from effect; hence, it makes little difference which development is studied first. Last February, disarmament was the logical thing to begin with, this February it was nationalism.

ANOTHER VALUE

Another value in teaching history backwards is the possibilities it gives for indoctrination. Do not cry out that this is committing a sacrilege against the purity of history. We have always indoctrinated our pupils with the superiority of the United States, the sanctity of war, the white man's burden, and so on indefinitely. Be honest with yourself and with your pupils; list the attitudes you plan to develop and then develop them. In teaching nationalism, teach that it has served its purpose, that it is a cause of war and hence out of place in a modern civilization, that every nation has contributed to progress and hence is worthy of admiration. These ideas must be so definite that the teacher can write them down and refer to them; otherwise, one is apt to think that he has only some attitudes to develop. Show your hand, start right out with the attitude and then work back, building, adding, molding until the pupil himself acquires the attitude as the logical summation. If he does not know what he is working toward, he will not arrive.

In the teaching of current events, the reverse order of procedure is invaluable. So often current events are mere current events—the weekly Monday lesson—with no connection with each other or with last week's events. The plan in the past, of course, was to attach them to each country or to each unit the last day before the final examination. But the rush of finishing everything and leaving some time for review finally crowded them out altogether, and modern history ended in 1922. Teach history backwards and the current situation will always be taught in connection with the rest of the course, thus resulting in the ideas of continuity and progress.

Teaching history backwards is not building a roof before the foundation. It is drawing architect's plans. Present the whole, the finished picture to the builder; he will then work back step by step until he knows his foundation must be so big and so strong that every crack and cranny must be filled and every line accounted for. He will then build an edifice that will hold the roof; he will look ahead to the time when an interior decorator and a landscape artist will fulfill the dream of the architect.

And finally, can history actually be taught backwards? An affirmative answer can be given for materials of modern European history to be studied during the second semester.

To work out the plan in question, the writer had to use the materials at hand in the school. Since every effort is made to reach the pupils, the plan was favorably received by the administration. No choice of text, of field, of pupils, or of time could be made. The requirements were: the textbook, *History of Europe*:

Our Own Times,² the field, 1850 to the present; approximately thirty pupils; a 45-minute period. In Milwaukee, European history is an elective subject in the sophomore year. The pupils enroll in the course either because they need it for college entrance or because they like history. The pupils are above the average high-school student enrollment in mental ability and interest.

The group with whom the plan was first worked out had been enrolled in the class in modern European history during the preceding semester. The period from approximately 1700 to 1850 had been divided into units, and the pupils were accustomed to unit rather than daily assignments, to reference reading, and to weekly assignments in current reading.

The first day of the new semester, the pupils were asked what they really wanted to learn. "About the World War," "about Hitler," "Russia," "airplanes." With a little encouragement they realized that dates and treaties were not meant, a common conception of history courses, but their real interests. Listing the items resulted in an imposing array of topics. "Can we group some of these, so as to make a shorter list?" It was readily done by the pupils themselves who finished this part of the program by selecting the study they wished to complete first.

The remainder of the week was devoted to a study of current periodicals. All Milwaukee newspapers were listed, and then all others to which the pupils had access either in the school library or at home. We investigated the ownership, editorship, and policies of the papers. The same study was extended to all the magazines in which we expected to find material for the semester's work.

We were now ready to proceed with the units of work. Early in 1932, the most widely discussed subject in the newspapers was the disarmament conference. The pupils then wanted to begin their study with (1) disarmament, and planned to follow this with: (2) modern industrial revolution, (3) imperialism, (4) developing politico-economic theories, (5) changing cultures and social ideas, (6) nationalism, (7) internationalism, and (8) leadership.

There is nothing arbitrary about the list. It is difficult to teach the period either chronologically or logically. The writer was eager to catch and develop the pupils' interest and allowed them to study the problem of the moment. This semester, newspaper comment on Europe and China caused us to begin with (1) nationalism, (2) imperialism, and so on. The course is flexible enough to be adapted to any new development. We were able to look ahead to the economic conference of the summer; but seldom do we get a month's notice for preparation, and here the plan proves invaluable.

The German elections were of prime importance last February, hence we began with nationalism. We placed it first in the list of units that each pupil kept in his history folder. Two study charts were constructed, one for the pupils and one for the teacher. Definite, measurable objectives were listed in the latter; it also included the attitudes to be developed. The pupils' study chart was very brief. It began with: "A. The situation in Germany today"; the sub-topics were

² James Harvey Robinson, Charles A. Beard, and James Henry Breasted, *History of Europe: Our Own Times*. (Revised Edition.) Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934.

questions: "Who is Hitler? How did he rise to power?" and so on. Then followed: "B. The situation in Germany yesterday," with the first sub-heading, "I. The German Republic," designed to give the facts which produced the present situation, and finally how the republic was established. This led naturally to its precursor, "II. The German Empire," and finally, "III. The development of Prussia into the Empire." There were no references on the sheet, and no suggestions for special study.

ASSIGNMENTS

The first assignment, "The situation in Germany as reported in the daily papers," was given without introduction and before the sheets were distributed. The next day's recitation began with "What did you read for today? Tell us about it." The account was given, supplemented, and corrected; sometimes it was a jumbled, disorganized mass of half-understood repetitions. The question, "What is a chancellor?" resulted in a few falling by the wayside. "How does a chancellor become chancellor?" and a few more went to defeat. "Who is Hitler, and what are his policies?" A few more made attempts to answer, and the questioning was over. Some carefully selected remarks were made, and the pupils saw the point. Then the guide sheet was distributed. We read the main headings together, commented on the fact that Prussia, the German Empire, and the German Republic were already known, even though we did not know the details concerning their history. But we concentrated on the first topic, "The situation in Germany today: where will you look for material?" After the *Reader's Guide* had been mentioned, and our magazine list referred to, their attention was directed to some biographies of Hitler and von Hindenburg, which were borrowed from the public library, and to a folder of clippings which had been collected for many months. The satisfaction of actually studying a problem and getting to the bottom of it was stressed.

The next day the pupils had an opportunity to ask questions on the subject. The recitation period soon became completely socialized; that is, the pupils were asking each other questions, and giving each other the benefit of their study. Some went to the reading table and eagerly showed their classmates interesting articles or chapters, while one group after another called upon the teacher to settle differences, give advice, or otherwise guide them. The room was not quiet but there was a social value in permitting small conversational groups. Before conversation began to run thin, comments were made on a few general questions which seemed to have perplexed the majority of the pupils, and additional articles were listed for further reading.

During subsequent class periods, the presentation of facts in an interesting, organized way was considered. Expression of opinions, leading the others to challenge it, was encouraged, but with insistence on a firm background of facts, and references to authorities.

The development of a critical attitude toward the reference reading was

emphasized. Who wrote the article? What was his nationality? Where did he collect his material? And other questions of similar nature were raised. At first this procedure devolved on the teacher but gradually the pupils became adept at the task.

Thus keeping the current situation before us, we worked back through history. Frequent use was made of ten-minute subjective tests to establish the facts, leaving the class period free for a development of objectives and attitudes. A test which indicated that the pupils had mastered the subject of state socialism in Germany was followed by a discussion designed to show the difference between that type of socialism and that advocated by the Socialist Party. The government of Milwaukee was introduced, and social legislation in Wisconsin furnished a background for the appraisal of paternalism. Outlines for factual material were not required; but after a few "casualties" on the tests and class periods devoted to group study in selecting, listing, and organizing essential points, most of the pupils voluntarily made outlines. If a pupil was having difficulty, additional individual instruction in how to study was provided after his study habits had been investigated. The form to follow in using notebooks was an individual choice, each pupil collecting the material which he felt would be of value to him in class or in review.

This was the most eager group the writer encountered during her teaching experience. The pupils commenced to ask for the next month's magazines two weeks in advance, haunting the reference room of the public library and, as several parents complained, embarrassing their elders in their search for first-hand information. Frequently class began with: "Can we talk about this or that today?" or "Did you find this item in the paper?" or "I found a copy of that treaty!"

The factual tests were supplemented by other types. For example, the pupils were asked to write a page on the causes of the Franco-Prussian War. When this was completed, we developed a list of topics which should have been included, that were written on the blackboard. The pupils then checked their papers with this list, rating them as excellent, acceptable, or poor.

The study of the first countries developed slowly since we took time for historical training and for many definitions; nothing was taken for granted. As the materials on other countries were introduced, our study became more and more comparative. Constant reference to national contributions to civilization, balancing of war gains versus war losses, tracing developments from feudalism to the present international entanglements, etc. in their cumulative effect modified the attitudes of many pupils and tended to produce new ones. Finally nationalism was discussed and appraised, helping to crystallize the opinions of the pupils. When we came to the later units, the pupils had already acquired much of the materials and they needed only to organize and learn to use them. Much less time was necessary for covering them. Once a unit was completed, we never lost track of it; the relationships between nationalism and imperialism, nationalism and culture, etc., were developed frequently in subsequent units.

For a semester topic, each pupil chose a major country or a group of minor countries. He was then responsible for current literature on his subject, references, pictures, and other materials. He was expected to call attention to articles which appeared subsequently, thus keeping the class currently posted. As study of the country he had selected for his semester topic was undertaken, each pupil was required to provide a list of references from the public library, in addition to books and magazines from our own school library. He understood that although he received credit for whatever work he had actually done, a basic understanding was prerequisite to any "extra" credit. Many pupils assembled elaborate notebooks of outlines, clippings, maps, and original cartoons; some handed in only a series of book reports; but only a few did nothing beyond the required work.

THE QUESTION OF CREDIT

This raises the question of credit. How can one measure accomplishment in this type of study? Frankly one cannot! But the course is designed with the view of fitting into the existing school system. After the first month's work, we examined the results of the factual tests. Evidences of progress in supplying and evaluating references, presenting material to the class, and formation of opinion, were noted. The grades were then averaged: all the poor pupils getting up to 80, and the more competent ones up to 90, the exemption grade being 85. The next month, after due warning, every pupil who rested on his oars received a lower grade, but some grades were raised to 95. The final examination may be indicative of accomplishment since a long and detailed examination was given.

The first part was objective, the number of points running well over a hundred; the second part called for discussion, testing the ability of the students to organize and present facts with references; and the third part required an evaluation of certain current movements. I have never had a class cover so long an examination in the allotted time nor do as well with it. As to facts, the pupils became so eager to understand the present and to substantiate their views that they gained actually a more adequate command of facts and remembered them far better than pupils who had studied history in the traditional fashion. In addition they could interpret and use these facts. The evaluations were particularly interesting, everyone giving some historical background to substantiate his particular views.

There are, then, four factors in teaching history: traditional subject matter, the current situation, the pupils, and the teacher. The first which is a constant can be selected months ahead and adhered to; the last two are constant throughout a semester; but the current situation is variable. On September first we can never know what we will be studying by December, nor can we know what we will be facing in 1935 or 1950. By teaching history backwards, however, the writer firmly believes that it is possible to send forth pupils who are keenly interested in the current situation and who realize that history has a real value in its interpretation.

Current Events in World Affairs

GEORGE H. E. SMITH

*Historic November in World Affairs
Undercurrents in United States Affairs*

HISTORIC NOVEMBER IN WORLD AFFAIRS

So many important events at home and abroad crowded into the month of November that it will go down in current history as one among the several outstanding periods since the World War. Proceeding in the face of many difficulties and ignoring the strong protests and threats made by Italy, the League of Nations increased the strength and operations of sanctions aimed to end the African war. In Germany, the once powerful Stahlhelm was dissolved, exports of raw materials were prohibited except under strict license, the laws against the Jews were put in force, and the militarization of the country was advanced a step further by the enrollment of the classes of 1913 and 1916 for the army and the labor services. After several rumors and false starts in the movement to separate five northern provinces from the rest of China, action was taken toward the close of the month with Japanese troops reported ready to "pour into the area" at the first sign of Chinese resistance. In England, the Conservative Party (calling itself the "government") headed by Prime Minister Stanley Baldwin won an overwhelming victory in the national elections. King George II of Greece was restored to the throne after twelve years of exile, and his real troubles will now commence. A revolutionary outburst swept the seacoast states of Brazil but was quickly put down by the Federal Government forces.

The month recorded many notable events in the United States. Legal action against the new deal increased in subject matter and intensity. In addition to the large number of cases already pending before the Supreme Court on important laws of the last three Congresses, many new suits were filed against the Public Utility Act of 1935 (chiefly the holding company section), the Wagner Labor Relations Act, the Bituminous Coal Conservation Act (Guffey Coal Bill, or "little NRA"), and other legislative parts of the recovery program.

In the field of labor, John Lewis, President of the United Mine Workers, resigned the office of Vice-President of the American Federation of Labor. By his action he brought to a climax and took out into the arena of open warfare the conflict between the craft and industrial forms of union organization. Extending its conception of government yardsticks to labor relations, the Tennessee Valley Administration announced that it will put the spirit and provisions of the Wagner Labor Relations Act into effect throughout its jurisdiction.

Business carried the sustained drive toward better conditions to higher levels during the month by further increased dividends, enlarged productivity and employment, sharp upward spurts in stock-market activity, and widespread indications of consumer buying well above the seasonal level. The month saw the end of Federal direct relief after more than three and a half billions had been spent since May, 1933. Of those now without work or proper support, the employables will be shifted to work-relief under the WPA while those unable to work will be returned to the care of the states. Assuming that the nation was now well on the way to better times,

President Roosevelt, speaking from Atlanta, Georgia, gave a broad survey of the changes for the better brought about by his administration and announced that the peak of spending was now passed. Mindful, however, that there are still large numbers of people out of work looking to the government for aid, he reiterated his stand that the Federal Government "does not propose to let people starve" in an address before the Conference of Mayors at Washington on November 19.

Announcing the result of its poll on the new deal which the *New York Times* referred to editorially as "loaded questions" begging the point, the Chamber of Commerce of the United States declared that 833 out of 1473 organizations voted, and that the broad result of the four questions submitted was a 35 to 1 vote against the Roosevelt recovery program. A New York State Supreme Court decision held unconstitutional the State's Fair Trade Act which had permitted producers to fix the prices of their trade-marked products for re-sale to consumers. In Chicago a Federal Court of Appeals reversed an order of the Grain Futures Administration suspending Arthur W. Cutten from trading on the country's grain exchanges for two years because of his violations of the trading Act. Although considered out of the running in the coming presidential elections, former-president Hoover continues to range the whole country, roundly condemning the new deal, proposing "constructive" suggestions, calling for a return to the "old Americanism," and otherwise serving notice that he was not personally laid away along with the results of the 1932 elections. Of the several other possible aspirants for the Republican nomination, Senator William E. Borah was the most active, although he, like Mr. Hoover, has not publicly announced whether or not he chooses to run. It is likely that both of these men will wait—and wait—for the people to draft them.

Several notable events mark the month as a significant one in the field of American foreign affairs. Chief among them was the President's proclamation that "the heretofore existing government of the Philippine Islands is now terminated, and that the government of the Commonwealth of the Philippines" under its own Constitution and the enabling laws of the United States "is the successor to the heretofore existing Philippine Government and to all the rights and obligations thereof." Enthusiastic acclaim, some protest and denunciation, and reserved opinion pending developments, greeted the new reciprocal trade treaty signed with Canada in mid-month and a surprisingly short time after the broad victory gained by MacKenzie King and the Liberal Party in the Canadian elections less than a month previous. Expectations that this treaty would be held up until it could serve as a bargaining point for new trade arrangements within the British Commonwealth were not fulfilled as a result of the surprise move. The determined effort of the Roosevelt Administration to make American neutrality a fact in spirit as well as in law is perhaps the third of the outstanding developments over the month. The area over which restrictions on American trade with belligerent countries is operating was broadened and strengthened by action taken in several quarters. These actions seemed to be timed so well with the actions of the League of Nations on sanctions that Administration critics accused the government of having a tacit understanding with the League and its members. Neutrality principles were observed in another quarter and in a slightly different way when President Roosevelt, in a letter to Martin H. Carmody, Supreme Knight of the Knights of Columbus, refused to interfere with the acts of the Mexican Government in the domain of religion. Interested in the alleged persecutions of Catholics by and under Mexican Government activities, Mr. Carmody, acting in behalf of the Order, had called upon the President to take some

official action in the case. Reiterating his former statement deplored the use of force and violence by the state in religious affairs of individuals, the President concluded his letter by declaring that "I decline to permit this government to undertake a policy of interference in the domestic concerns of foreign governments and thereby jeopardize the maintenance of peaceful conditions."

All in all, these events of November, at home and in outside world affairs, are more than surface ripples on the broad river of social relations. Ever so often in history the strong undercurrents swirl to the top revealing the mighty forces that shape the course of human events. Mankind is vouchsafed a glimpse of them, perhaps to warn, perhaps to guide. Then these undercurrents recede again to drive on below the apparent surface calm and capricious ripples. Judging by their importance and probable far-reaching consequences, the events of this November mark such a period in history. They reflect and express some of the underlying forces that will mold the future. It would be the height of folly if man did not turn to these events and study them deeply.

UNDERCURRENTS IN UNITED STATES AFFAIRS

It is always difficult and sometimes futile to try to place contemporary events within the framework of history. This is because we cannot separate ourselves from the swirl of current affairs to view them with detachment and proper perspective. It is also because the framework of history is a crude affair. The pattern of human progress is never as clear, for example, as is the design of a picture puzzle which is easily revealed after a little study of the pieces that go to make up the whole. With history there is no foreordained whole; history is always a picture to be, a design in the making; and it is never clearly defined, never finished. And yet a careful review of the centuries does reveal some trends of development, some lines of force—material and spiritual—some movements of ideas and interests even though they are forever being conceived, maturing and being transformed. The things we see in such a review thread through the whole fabric of human affairs and stand out from the recorded panorama of unfolding civilization like the coarse fibers often stand out from the texture of finished cloth. These things have substance and crude form. They link the past, present, and future. They give meaning to what otherwise would be nothing more than incessant movement. Taken altogether they make up a crude pattern which we call the framework of history.

Ever so often some one or several events rises up out of the muddle of current affairs and takes its place within this framework of history. Over recent months the conception of public relief and social security may be said to have been such an event. In November, out of the many important developments in the United States, there are two which are likely to find a place in the framework of history. They are: the open conflict in the labor movement, and the emergence of a new conception of neutrality.

Labor Strikes Out in New Directions. The American Federation of Labor came into being in 1886. Its total membership then was estimated at 50,000. By 1902 its membership was slightly above 1,000,000. In the subsequent years the total fluctuated between two and four million, with 3,045,000 reported for 1935. Out of the total number of gainful workers in the United States at least thirty-five million are looked upon as being available and eligible for unionization. So that in its forty years of existence the American Federation of Labor has attached to its banners less than ten per cent of the possible total of workers unionizable.

Individual workers do not make up the Federation. The workers belong to unions

and it is these unions that have affiliated and constitute the Federation. It comprises 109 national and international unions, 4 departments, 49 state federations of labor, 730 city central bodies, and 1354 local trade and federal labor unions. Within the limitations of the Federation charter, all these constituent unions order their own affairs.

These unions making up the Federation are formed along two broad lines, the craft union and the industrial union. The former organizes workers according to craft or occupation such as carpenters, bricklayers, printers, machinists. Regardless of what industry carpenters are employed, all such workers belong to the carpenters, or craft, union. The latter type of organization, the industrial union, draws its membership from all workers "in and about" a particular industry. The outstanding example of such a type is the United Mine Workers of America. In addition to mine workers, it includes carpenters, machinists, engineers, and all other workers associated with the mining of coal.

With the growth of large scale industry and the drawing together of many crafts and occupations in a single industry, such as the automobile industry, the demand for a better organization of labor began to come from the minor leaders and the rank and file. The charge was made that the old craft form of organization suited the early, formative period of industry, but was outmoded by the growth and new forms of technology and modern industry. It was claimed that the craft unions stood in the way of labor growth and solidarity by separating labor forces into a multitude of small, weak and conflicting units. The industrial union was urged as the best form of unionization to meet the trends of a new day. This conflict arose within the Federation itself. For years it was waged in the annual conventions and from there carried back to the ranks within the constituent unions. It was a fight within the framework of the parent union, the Federation. It did not come out into the open. It smoldered and flared up from year to year, but no settlement was ever reached.

John Lewis, President of the United Mine Workers, began to emerge as the rallying point for those who demanded the industrial union. William Green, President of the Federation itself, stood for the craft union, although he was willing to grant some undefined place to the industrial union as well. Those favoring the craft union were in the majority and in power. Their opponents were in the minority. A vote on the question at the recent convention in Atlantic City resulted in a victory for the craft unionists by 11,000 to 8000.

Shortly after the close of the convention the labor leaders favoring the industrial type of union formed an organization of their own. It is their aim to push the industrial form of organization and to assist the workers in the unorganized mass production industries to organize along the new lines. At least seven international labor unions were represented by their leaders. John Brophy of the United Mine Workers was placed in charge, and Mr. Lewis of the same organization was named President. Some two weeks later, Lewis resigned from the Vice-Presidency of the American Federation of Labor. Mr. Green deplored the formation of the new body and the resignation of Mr. Lewis, as presaging a cleavage in the ranks of labor with grave consequences.

There is much to indicate that Mr. Green's fears are well-founded. The smoldering conflict, its persistence in the conventions year after year, the failure of the old Federation to make a better showing in almost a half century of activity, the growth of company unions, and the growing militancy of the rank and file of workers are some of the chief straws showing the way the wind is blowing. Organized labor has reached a turning point in the course of its development. The leaders of the older Federation

have been blind to the rise of a new technology and the demands of a new industrial order. Time and again they have permitted opportunities to advance labor's cause to pass by them. The NRA opened up all sorts of possibilities but the old guard such as the greater part of the Federation's executive committee either lacked the vision to see them or were too willing to rest content upon the past achievements even if it meant stagnation and ultimate decay. Whether deliberately or through ignorance, these leaders have not kept their ears to the ground; and they have failed to hear the ever-increasing rumblings of the great rank and file of workers throughout the country. The new movement, led at present at least by Mr. Lewis, has been more alert and more responsive to the real demands of the workers who seem to sense that labor must move in new directions and with increased vigor if it is to survive the turmoil of this great transition period in history. At any rate, the impending split in the old Federation has at last come out into the open. The interests of labor everywhere, as well as the strategy of the present situation, should induce the leaders of the Federation to reform their old tenets and embrace the new in spirit as well as in fact. In all probability they will not do so, or it may now be too late. Labor is on the march. What happens with it now and in the near future is bound to have profound effects upon the whole of industrial society and the course of American history. For more complete information on the situation of organized labor, see:

"The American Federation of Labor," *Labor Information Bulletin*, Vol. II, No. 11 (November, 1935).
Proceedings of the Annual Convention of the Federation of Labor, 1935.

A New Neutrality Policy. The whole trend of the new deal in the field of foreign affairs points toward new relationships and forms in foreign policy. The essence of the "good neighbor" policy is the emphasis it places upon the nation itself as the primary field engaging American thought with action in the international sphere secondary and reduced to a minimum. This has been evident from the moment President Roosevelt took the action that ended the London Monetary Conference in July, 1933, to his latest refusal to interfere in the religious situation in Mexico.

The latest expression of this policy of keeping the United States out of the affairs of other nations, especially activities likely to draw this country into foreign wars, was the neutrality act passed by the last Congress. The step then taken was a weak one in that it was a compromise between profits and peace. Under the act, Americans were forbidden to engage in some trade directly and indirectly with belligerent countries, such as the traffic in munitions and implements of war; but a large field was left open for trade in other commodities, particularly the raw materials such as coal, iron, copper, cotton, oil, and the like which are the sinews of modern war.

In acting under the law with respect to the African war, the President and the State Department seemed to go as far as they could under the neutrality provisions. They embargoed implements of war, warned Americans against engaging in transactions with warring nations and traveling on the ships of such nations. These things fulfilled the letter of the law, but they were far from carrying out its spirit. All of the action taken could only play a small part in keeping this country out of war. Trade in oil, cotton, scrap metal, and other commodities essential in war flourished with Italy. It was then that the Administration moved to carry out the spirit of the law. The State Department investigated the expansion and nature of this trade and, what is more, published the figures with admonitions against the tendencies such a trade would have to involve this country in the fortunes of the warring nations. The Secretary of the Interior, Mr.

Harold Ickes, took steps to cut down the shipments of oil to Italy. The director of the shipping board in the Department of Commerce used the government creditor relation with ship operators to induce them to curtail their traffic to and with the warring countries. All of these acts were accompanied by statements of government spokesmen aimed at curbing American business relationships chiefly with Italy, although the policy itself embraced Ethiopia as well.

There is behind this neutrality policy, and more so behind the administration of the policy, a determined effort to keep the United States from being drawn into future wars. The policy shows that we have learned the lesson of 1914-1919, that we understand that war business brings neither profits nor peace, and that peace itself is something more than a product of pious aspirations. It is stupid to go through a prolonged war and the aftermath of depression to learn that war does not pay. It is better to make the sacrifices for peace before war comes than to make the sacrifices later as a consequence of war. In each case the sacrifices are of the same kind—political upset, economic derangement, social catastrophe—but those made for peace are less severe, less distressing, and therefore easier to bear. In many cases the safety of the nation and the continuity of the life of its people is the price paid for the wrong time to make a choice between the sacrifices for peace and those that come of war.

The Administration has made the right choice this time. It had to go beyond the law to do it. Another Administration may not make such a wise choice, as has often happened in the past. But there are signs that the present régime will take still another step. It will try to get its actions giving life to the spirit of the law enacted into the letter when the next Congress meets. If it does this, it should have the support of the whole people that their safety for the future may be better assured than it has been in the past. The existing Neutrality Act, its interpretation by the Roosevelt Administration, and the proposed action by the new Congress, points in the direction of a new order in foreign relationships for the United States. And the dictates of history, as well as the sheer logic of common sense, support the development as a necessary and momentous step toward the abolition of war from human affairs. An interesting survey of the problem of neutrality, and of the legislation designed to meet it, is:

Bennett Champ Clark, "Detour Around War," *Harpers Magazine*, CLXXII (December, 1935), 1-9.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

LOYALTY OATHS FOR TEACHERS

Nothing in recent years seems to have aroused as much opposition in educational circles in the East as the loyalty oath statutes, probably not because of the oath itself but because the groups sponsoring such legislation are also frequently identified as the pressure groups engaged in the intimidation of teachers and in the suppression and censorship of instruction and materials, especially in the social studies. Limitations of space permit the additional citation of only a few statements (see XXVI, October, 1935, 410-411) in opposition to such oaths made recently by many prominent educators and teachers. At the recent Progressive Education Association meeting in New York City, Dr. Abraham Lefkowitz said: "The loyalty oath intimidates teachers and makes true teaching impossible." Calling loyalty oaths "the height of folly," Dr. Arvie Eldred, Secretary of New York State Teachers Association, before the annual meeting of the House of Delegates on November 25, said:

"To subject teachers to oaths of allegiance, thinking thereby to restrict them in what they teach, is the height of folly. Teachers must be free to exercise their inalienable rights as citizens in their personal behavior and professional people possess the right to teach the facts as they appear."

Opposition to loyalty oaths was expressed forcibly and vigorously by speakers at the recent meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. Dr. Dixon Ryan Fox, President of Union College, in his address at the annual dinner, described the attempts to abrogate or to limit freedom of teaching as "intellectual lynching parties." In part, he said:

"Certainly we are not to be kept right by oaths, by compulsory oaths. And yet that is the recipe prescribed. To quote a complaint of the crusaders published in the current number of the *National Republic*, 'Approximately only half the teachers of the schools in the United States are now required to subscribe to an oath of loyalty to the national Constitution as a condition to employment.' Only half! This situation, which they regard so shameful, they call upon our governments promptly to remedy by compulsory unanimity. The legislation which most pleases them, and which has virtually been realized in Rhode Island is that which follows the teachers out of the classroom into personal social life and forbids them to say anything with which a patriotic commission could disagree. By such efforts the symbol of our profession of education, ladies and gentlemen, would be, not the lamp of inquiry, but the muzzle.

"As everyone here knows, the muzzle is devised not only to protect those who by stretch of definition could be called children, but also to 'protect' young men in college classrooms as well. In this state, in all so-called private colleges, exempted from taxation, every teacher must swear to uphold the Federal Constitution and the Constitution of the State. Waiving aside the fact that both these documents make provision for amendment and thus infer their own improbability; ignoring, too, for the moment, the clauses in each that forbid all laws abridging the liberty of speech; and granting that almost every teacher, under his own interpretation, could take this oath with a free conscience—nevertheless, the legislators make a perilous departure from American tradition when they single out a class of citizens for control in action, utterance, and thought. If the legislature can control the expression of thought in tax-exempt classrooms, it can control the expression of thought in tax-exempt pulpits. There is neither time nor need here

to develop the consequences of such a precedent. It is wholly foreign to the political philosophy of the founders of these governments. One needs but look at three great countries of Continental Europe to see where it will lead."

In a similar manner, Abraham Lefkowitz, in discussing this subject, reminded his hearers, and especially the hysterical patriots, that there is revolution in reaction as well as in radicalism; that toryism, speaking a jargon of law and order, may often prove a greater menace to liberty even in America than radicalism of the most extreme type. He stressed the fact that fascism was America's greatest enemy, one that may engulf our democracy. He believed that fascism can triumph only if the military spirit becomes dominant in America and freedom of thought and expression are placed in a strait-jacket. He continued: "The greatest menace to freedom is the loyalty oath for teachers, students, and first voters which has been fathered by our industrial Bourbons who not only oppose a planned economy based upon the service ideal but also every basic or essential change made necessary by the great strides in modern technology and industrial rationalization. By means of these loyalty oaths, which will be interpreted by boards of education dominated by the reactionary forces, they hope to bring about the elimination of the fearless critics of our economic and social ills from the schools of America, or, where that is difficult, to so paralyze their thinking that they will not dare discuss vital controversial questions.

"America's newest indoor legislative sport of enacting loyalty oaths was not inspired by disloyalty of teachers, their advocacy of communism, or their violation of the ethics of the profession. Inspired by red-baiters, men noted for their limited social outlook or understanding, the oaths tend to place a stigma of disloyalty upon teachers, deprive them of the right to think, limit the teaching staffs to those who lack the courage or the mind to exercise their legal right to just criticism of existing institutions, and thus transform teachers into serfs of the state, thereby laying the basis for fascist tendencies.

"If our democracy is to survive the onslaughts of dictatorship, those of us who believe in democracy and who have no vested interest in exploitation of our fellowmen must organize to combat the red hysteria and liberate the teaching profession from the paralyzing influence of these loyalty oaths and their reactionary sponsors. We teachers of America ought to be grateful to the patriotic organizations and the Chamber of Commerce for these oaths which have awakened us from our slumber and convinced us of the necessity for organizing effectively on a national scale to preserve the ideals of the teaching profession, our democracy, and our freedom."

Meanwhile the students of Williams College, in Massachusetts where intense opposition is reported, made a gala event of the day the members of the faculty took the oath. Several hundred students carrying flags and appropriate signs, and led by a fifer and drummer, assembled and indulged in a flag-waving drill as a sort of guard of honor, while the faculty walked between two rows of students into the hall to take the oath, according to student press reports published in the metropolitan newspapers.

As we go to press the newspapers report that only one-half of the teachers of Massachusetts have turned in the sworn forms which are overdue, that thirty-five teachers have taken the oath with qualifications, that at least one professor in Harvard University has done likewise, while two professors in Tufts College have tendered their resignations rather than subscribe to the oath. In the meantime the Attorney-General of the State is reported to have furnished an opinion that teachers cannot take the oath with qualifications or exceptions.

Whatever the opposition to loyalty oaths may mean and to whatever results it may

lead, it reveals once again the need for a strong and vigorous organization of social-studies teachers to protect freedom of teaching and to prevent the distortion of instruction in the social studies. One form of that organization is available in the National Council for the Social Studies, but it needs the support of a much larger number of teachers if it is to meet such issues and perform such services.

LATEST EFFECTS OF "RED-RESTRICTIONS" UPON THE WASHINGTON SCHOOLS

In these columns (XXVI, December, 1935, 554-557) we pointed out the difficulties caused by a rider inserted into an appropriation bill which requires teachers to state that they have not taught or advocated communism before they receive their salary checks. Despite an opinion by the Corporation Counsel that teachers might teach but not advocate communism, the Comptroller-General has since ruled that teachers must subscribe to the literal statement before each pay check is issued. Meanwhile Mrs. Roosevelt, in a press conference at the White House according to press dispatches, revealed the absurdities which might arise in classrooms through the attempts which teachers might have to make to avoid the mention of Russia and communism. Several speakers at the recent meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, taking cognizance of the Washington imbroglio, were vigorous in its denunciation. Dr. Dixon Ryan Fox, at the annual dinner, said in part:

"The American temperament is intense and impatient. Accustomed to rapid social changes we are likewise accustomed to rapidly changing laws. These laws, being specific, soon grow obsolete; unenforced, they contribute to lawlessness and the toleration of lawlessness. A new country, driven forward by enterprise, is used to accomplishment by voluntary organizations. Propaganda, so organized, easily assumes that it can mold or stifle opinions by laws. There are those who think they can lynch an idea with a sudden statute. These lynching parties rely on smothering; but you can't violently smother ideas—they escape or explode in revolution. The only way to defeat an idea is to dissolve it with a better idea. The only way to beat a book is to write a better book."

"These lynching parties never trust the court of general good sense; they will never wait, if they can help it, for a full and fair trial of an idea before that tribunal. They are ready to start with their own lethal apparatus whenever they think its guards are weakened by the loss of prestige. The first point of attack is the public school, since schools are immediately controlled by statute.

"With the natural recession of war feeling in 1919, the Irish and Germans made an attack, successful for a time, to wipe out all appreciation of England from the schoolbooks, especially histories dealing with the American Revolution. There was some need of revision, but it finally came by decree of the court of good sense, rather than by the violence of the lynching parties. Now when the prestige of planned economy is declining, for the time being, the lynching parties are gathering their apparatus of oaths and threats to terrorize teachers. The latest attack has come not in some remote and primitive mountain village but in the national capital itself. There, by Federal statute, the 3300 teachers must take monthly oaths not to mention or advert to the philosophy of communism. Thus the Constitution is to be preserved by violating the spirit if not the letter of its first amendment.

"So far as authority can prevent it, in the last effect, young people are not to speak or think about any form of government widely different from our own. Inevitably they will infer that our institutions would be withered by comparative analysis, and must, in their frail decrepitude, be guarded against embarrassing contrasts. This

doubt and worry are the last results the patriots desire; they are the first results that will come of this policy. Moreover, these fanatical guardians of the Constitution think its essence is so volatile that it would disappear at the smallest infusion of a new idea. New ideas would be appropriate only if there were new conditions, but in the blur of their myopic vision there are no new conditions; the world of 1935 is exactly the same as the world of 1787, and gag and manacles for any who dare to say that it is not!"

Commenting on the meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, the *New York Herald-Tribune*, December 1, takes such a sensible position that we reprint the entire editorial.

"INTELLECTUAL LYNCHINGS"

"Comptroller General McCarl's ruling that under the new rider to the District of Columbia appropriations act Washington school teachers must sign a solemn declaration that they have not 'taught or advocated' communism every time they draw their monthly pay checks puts an appropriate seal of imbecility upon all this sort of heresy-hunting legislation. The Comptroller General, of course, was right; it is the law which was fatuous, and one can only agree with Dr. Dixon Ryan Fox and the other speakers who, at the meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies on Friday, concentrated their artillery upon the whole pack of teachers' oath bills, intellectual 'lynching parties' and 'witch huntings' which have been plaguing the community.

"But one cannot help wondering whether it is any longer a sound argument to say that the suppression of ideas actually promotes their underground spread. Aside from the absurd futility of these oaths as any effective defense against the dangerous doctrines of Moscow, the true argument is that the United States presents conditions of life so sound as to render those doctrines unattractive and a forum of public discussion so free as to expose their errors. Perhaps the one thing in which American democracy can still take the greatest pride is the fact that it does not have to hide in terror behind the skirts of censorship and propaganda ministries; and at the moment when suppression becomes necessary to insure the survival of our system, then the system itself will already have died.

"American democracy is certainly not yet in so enfeebled a condition that the routine signing of meaningless blank forms by its school teachers is all that stands between it and destruction."

The real issue involved is whether the Congress when it assembles will have the forthrightness to remedy this unfortunate imposition and reflection upon the teachers of Washington, thereby at the same time erasing a blot on its escutcheon presumably caused, in the rush of the legislative process, by a pressure group which perhaps thought, however wrongly, that its insertion of the rider in the appropriations bill was for the public good.

THE AMERICAN LEGION AND INCIPIENT FASCISM

In a round-table discussion on "Education and Propaganda" at the Progressive Education Association meeting in New York City, November 23, the activities of the American Legion in the alleged intimidation of teachers were brought out into the open and challenged. Abraham J. Rosenblum, Commander of the First District, attempted to defend the Legion's policies. The *New York Times*, November 24, quotes him as saying:

"I don't want anyone to accuse the Legion of being Fascist. I don't believe in suppressing anyone. I don't believe that the way to get rid of Communism is to suppress it. I know there are a few posts and departments in the Legion that have dealt unfairly with the people who are in education."

Eloquent testimony to the gentleman's admission is found in the numerous communications received in this editorial office in which the Legion is alleged to have intimidated teachers through interference with instruction, and through superintendents who "caution" teachers, and also to have censored materials used in the social studies in the schools. The real issue is not Mr. Rosenblum's admission of interference, but whether the American Legion as an organization, through its national officers, is willing to assume responsibility for such acts on the part of its posts and departments and suffer the consequences of such interference with freedom of teaching, or whether it will merely continue to apologize for such acts. Inasmuch as the Legion assumes a prominent place in connection with American Education Week sponsored by the National Education Association, as well as through the appearance of its officers on the N.E.A. programs, American parents, teachers, and pupils seem to have the right to expect an unequivocal statement of Legion policies in view of the increasing instances of alleged intimidation, suppression, and censorship, which, to those who are familiar with German and Italian patterns, approach dangerously close to Fascism.

STUDENT SPY SYSTEM AND FREEDOM OF TEACHING

According to *New York World-Telegram*, November 13, Naval Cadet Commander William J. Siegrist, President of the Association of Junior Military and Naval Organizations of Greater New York, after a secret meeting of representatives of his units at the United Bronx Post of the American Legion, is reported as having said:

"We use the idea of playing soldiers to inculcate patriotic character building and respect for law and order. We give them the discipline that will lead them to any understanding of Americanism."

While denying that "spy cells" had been set up in the schools to check on so-called subversive activities of teachers and pupils, he is reported to have said:

"The cadet commanders merely stress that it is the duty of all good citizens to report subversive activity. And if there is any such activity the kids report it and we turn it over to the Board of Education. All good citizens should report such un-American activities."

In a statement released before the meeting he is reported to have written:

"Our boys are being instructed to report all teachers who expound foreign inspired un-American philosophy and the evidence so gathered will be presented to the proper authorities for disciplining action. It is high time we purge our junior educational institutions of these undesirable elements."

By what right, we ask, does this undisguised effrontery of a pressure group masquerading under the mantle of patriotism seek to make spies out of otherwise decent youth? What brand of fascism does it espouse? What standards does it set us for its "spies" to evaluate "foreign inspired un-American philosophy"? What is its conception of public education? Does it believe in freedom of teaching? Is it willing to pay the price of repudiation by trying to impede the work of teachers and pupils in their search for the truth wherever it may lead them? Is it aware that real Americanism, possessed by virile-minded Americans, is made of higher purposes

and sterner stuff which finds heresy-hunting and spying on teachers deplorable and repulsive? Confucius is reported to have observed: "The bane of all things noble is the pattern citizen."

STUDENT LOYALTY OATHS IN NEW YORK CITY

At the close of the World War and later school systems in a number of cities presumably under the influence of the "red scare" at that time sponsored loyalty oaths as a prerequisite for graduation from high schools. In New York City, Dr. John L. Tildsley sponsored such a requirement. The United Parents Association recently challenged this requirement, and Dr. Tildsley agreed with them, reversing his earlier position. According to the *New York Sun*, November 8, he is reported as saying:

"I am the author of the loyalty oath requirement and I very sincerely regret its adoption. We know very well that we can't make a pupil loyal by statute. He is either loyal or he isn't. If he is not loyal and has an easy conscience he will sign the oath quicker than anybody else. If he has a conscience and refuses to sign I can see no point in forcing the issue on him in this way. The oath has no value and does not accomplish its purpose. Therefore, I am very strongly in favor of its repeal."

Meanwhile Superintendent Campbell expressed himself as strongly in favor of the oath, and twenty-four of the thirty-two assistant superintendents signed a statement in agreement with his position. One of them is reported in the *New York Times*, November 24, to the effect that the statement was "drawn after a discussion among some of the older superintendents of their observations of the younger generation." Eight did not sign. Frederic Ernst, according to the *New York World-Telegram*, November 22, said: "'Canned' sentiments prepared for Mothers' Day by telegraph companies are like the loyalty oaths required of city high school students on graduation." While not disagreeing with some of the parts of the statement, he does not "think the taking of this oath is a contribution to the fostering of Americanism in our schools."

A UNIQUE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

In the Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, New York, courses include Civics and Guidance required for freshmen, and a required course in American history. Elective courses offered to meet college entrance credits are Roman history, Greek history, modern European history, and economics. In addition to these more conventional aspects of the program, William Salter, Headmaster, has been guiding the development of a series of new courses. Sophomores spend two periods per week in the study and application of fundamental principles of logic, both formal and dynamic, on the assumption that pupils must be familiar with rules for thinking if they are actually to gain powers of thought. Juniors spend two periods each week in biography, with the aim of developing "a rudimentary acquaintance with philosophy, psychology, and politics by approaching these factors of living through the lives of men and women." Seniors are divided into two groups. One group of eight students meets for a "philosophy round-table discussion," with the materials drawn from the social and political interest of students. Another group of twenty-five students meets to discuss current affairs and to interpret "happenings of the day in terms of our national philosophy, American political parties, and the future contact of the Seniors with the world in which they are destined to live."

FORTHCOMING MEETINGS

The Social Science Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, on Friday evening, January 10, will hold a session in the Commerce Building, College of the City of New York, Lexington Avenue and East 23rd Street. Speakers and their subjects include: J. Montgomery Gambrill, Teachers College, Columbia University, "Survey of Recent Trends in the Teaching of the Social Studies"; Daniel C. Knowlton, New York University, "Critique of the Newer Trends." The discussion leader will be John Andrews, New York University.

ANGLO-AMERICAN HISTORICAL CONFERENCE

The fourth quinquennial Anglo-American Historical Conference will be held in London on July 6-11, 1936, at the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London. The following sections have been established: Medieval History, chairman, F. M. Stenton, Reading; Diplomatic History, chairman, C. K. Webster, London; History of Parliamentary Institutions, chairman, A. F. Pollard, London; Economic History, chairman, J. H. Clapham, Cambridge; British Colonial History, chairman, Sir Herbert Richmond, Cambridge; British Local History, chairman, A. Hamilton Thompson, Leeds; Slavonic History, chairman, R. W. Seton-Watson, London; Historical Relations between Europe and the American Continents, chairman, H. Hale Bellot, London; Oriental History (if sufficient demand is shown), chairman, H. H. Dodwell, London. Plans are being made for attractive excursions during and after the Conference, which promise to be as interesting, scientifically, and as delightful, socially, as its predecessors. Information respecting the Conference may be had from the Secretary, Institute of Historical Research, Malet Street, London, W. C. 1, or from Waldo G. Leland, 907 Fifteenth Street, Washington, D.C., an American member of the Committee.

COLLEGE SYLLABI UNDER NEW PLANS

In view of the interest in new plans for the organization of courses and for instruction in the undergraduate departments of different universities, we are listing below several announcements of new syllabi. While secondary-school teachers of the social studies must ever be on guard against making their courses abbreviated vest-pocket editions of college courses, they will find much helpful material in both the content and format in these syllabi which may be suggestive for secondary-school experimentation with similar material at appropriate grade levels.

Among the syllabi for the introductory general courses in the University of Chicago, the 5th editions of *Humanities* and *Social Science I*, used in the Humanities Division and in the Social Science Division, respectively, are now available. Among the syllabi for subject sequence courses are listed: *Geography 101* (2d ed., 1932), *Geography 102* (3d ed., 1933), *Geography 103* (2d ed., 1933), *Philosophy 101* (3d ed., 1933), *Philosophy 102* (1936), *Philosophy 103* (1936), *Social Science II* (4th ed., 1935). For further information, apply University of Chicago Bookstore, 5802 Ellis Avenue, Chicago.

The first volume of the 1935-1936 Edition of the Columbia College syllabus, *An Introduction to Contemporary Problems in the United States*, edited by Horace Taylor and "prepared by Columbia College Associates in Economics, Government and Public Law, History and Philosophy," is now available. The second volume will be available January 1. Apply Harcourt, Brace & Co., 383 Madison Avenue, New York City.

MATERIALS FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Units 2, 3, and 4, of *Our Times*, entitled "Social Security," "Population Changes," and "The Farmer," have been issued by the American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio. The editors are successful in packing a large amount of authentic information presented in an interesting manner in a small amount of space.

The second number of *Building America*, "Men and Machines," including a "Teachers Guide" bound in the copy, has been issued. The same high standards in photography are maintained with the addition of more pictograms. Apply: 425 West 123rd Street, New York City.

INSTRUCTION IN ADULT EDUCATION

In *Arrows and Driftwood: Essays in Lifelong Learning* (Berkeley: University of California, Extension Division, 1935), Leon J. Richardson, in a short essay "On the Art of Teaching Adults," offers a variety of pertinent suggestions, a few of which are reprinted here.

"The successful instructor of adults must possess a rich and wholesome personality. This is a matter of paramount importance. Through his personal qualities he must win respect for himself and stimulate interest in the work. Again, he must know his subject thoroughly and have much general knowledge. Finally, since good teaching concerns itself not with crowds and throngs but with persons and personalities, the instructor must direct his attention, not so much to the whole class, as to the individuals that compose it. To this end, he must acquaint himself with the capacity and previous educational training, the background of experience, as well as the needs and aims of each of his students.

"The instructor, in order to plan his work well and to lay the foundations for the best results, should make a survey of the community in which his class is conducted. The survey should concern itself primarily with the field represented in the course, the purpose of the instructor being to help his students avail themselves of all possible opportunities to further their ends and aims. These opportunities may consist of libraries—public, private, especially those assembled by themselves—and, as the subject under consideration may require, of museums, art galleries, scientific exhibits, laboratories, observatories, organizations, institutions or business establishments; and not infrequently, of seeking out and coming to know particular persons, particular communities, or particular aspects of the natural world."

TEACHING OF PEACE, AND HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

"The Dutch Commission on History Teaching has organized an inquiry on the teaching of peace in school textbooks. Out of a total of 148 elementary school textbooks, 24 were judged to be 'good,' 31 'sufficient,' 45 'insufficient,' and 48 omitted this teaching. Out of the 145 secondary-school textbooks examined, 38 were regarded as 'good,' 44 'sufficient,' 50 'insufficient,' and 13 made no reference to the subject. An inquiry on pacific and belligerent tendencies in Dutch classics is not yet completed." *Feuille mensuelle d'information de la F. I. A. I.*, June, 1935, summarized in International Bureau of Education *Bulletin*, IX (3d Q., 1935), 135.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Thorstein Veblen and His America. By Joseph Dorfman. New York: Viking Press, 1934. Pp. 556. \$3.75.

Once in a long time there is a person who because of a combination of unusual character and penetrating intellect is destined to become the theme of a saga. During Veblen's lifetime his personality and his ideas provoked a host of anecdotes and heroic legends. In the years of depression which by chance have followed his death—years in which more and more students of economic affairs have become conscious of Veblen's analytical insight and his prophetic vision—the saga has grown apace.

Because of this spread of interest in Veblen, and also because his works compel the recognition of his scholarly stature, all those who study or write or teach, or in any way work directly with ideas, must be interested in Mr. Dorfman's book. In this book, for the first time, the ground out of which the Veblen saga has grown has been sifted, with a great deal of labor and with estimable care. Much that is myth has been discarded; in this case truth is more impressive. Mr. Dorfman has worked with great perseverance in assembling and sorting his data. To get an insight to Veblen's mind he has read the college textbooks that Veblen read. As far as possible, he has known and studied the people who were closest to Veblen, has visited the places where Veblen lived and worked, has reconstructed for himself the situations which became entwined in Veblen's ways of thinking or touched off his reactions. During Veblen's last years of lecturing at the New School for Social Research, Mr. Dorfman attended his courses. To the teacher they were courses in economics and social theory; to the student they were Thorstein Veblen and his America.

The heroic proportions which cause a man to become a legend also cause him to be a difficult subject for a biographer. Veblen had an encyclopedic mind as well as a sharp one, and the range of his interests and talents makes the task of full-length portraiture on a single canvas a formidable one. He wrote learnedly on Kant's metaphysics; he chiselled away the postulates which support the conventional economic theory and made disdainful verbal grimaces at the suspended superstructure; he mastered the data of anthropology in his attempt to find a convincing explanation of man's economic behavior; he became deeply versed in the biological and physical sciences and sought with great discrimination to recast the techniques of these sciences into methodological tools for his own use; he was a gifted linguist; he wrote with rare discernment of industrial depressions, of how science has affected the habits of thought of modern people, of the apparatus-borrowing proclivities of the people in the Baltic-North Sea littoral; he translated the *Laxdaela Saga* from the ancient Icelandic; he devised an instrument which he believed would render submarines useless in naval warfare.

But these accomplishments merely reflect facets of the man. Singly or together they are complex, but Veblen was more so. A catalogue of all that he did cannot be made into a pattern of his mind. A part of his genius lay in his uncanny gift for finding important meaning in the commonplace. It was in just those ways of thinking and acting to which people in general are most completely habituated, and in just those routine values toward which the run of mankind is most thoroughly complacent, that Veblen sought to find ways of understanding social behavior. In his view it was stupid, and contrary to the observable facts, for economists to explain the choices people make as if those choices were arrived at rationally. People's tastes,

values, modes of economic conduct, as he saw these things, were mere expressions of "widely spread habits of thought and action." Their uncritical attitude toward all that was well received, their acquiescent participation in modes of behavior of which they did not inquire as to either the occasion or the end, revealed to Veblen the quality of people's actions.

The weaknesses and foibles which are brought to light by such investigation were seized upon by Veblen's biting and sarcastic sense of humor. The satirical passages in his writings have caused people to wince at his characterizations of their own absurdities. They also have been effective, in the sense that they have caused people either stubbornly to reaffirm the moral worth of their own values or to be shaken, for a moment, from their complacency. Like all great satirists, and unlike many who are only social scientists, Veblen's sense of humor gave him a clearer insight to his own times than most of his contemporaries. And, like all great satirists, his humor is deadly serious.

Mr. Dorfman is, of course, a disciple of Veblen. The foremost evidence of this is the fact that he has applied to the study of Veblen the very methods which Veblen himself used when he sought to explain some strange or striking phenomenon of a time or place. Although Veblen's mind was peculiarly his own, the conditions to which it reacted were those which made the American scene of its own time. Mr. Dorfman, therefore, has woven Veblen into the fabric of his environment, with a dimension of length which runs from Veblen's birth in 1857 to his death in 1929. The result, however, is not a complete social history. The threads which Mr. Dorfman has used do not include all of those which belong, in one way or another, to this period of time, but only those which seem to be connected in a fairly definite way with Veblen himself. This selection on grounds of relevancy also is consistent with Veblen's own method.

Able disciple as Mr. Dorfman is, there are two general respects in which his work appears to fall short of a truly Veblenian performance. In the first place, Mr. Dorfman is not a satirist. His book, therefore, is not lightened by a humorous bent, nor does it give off those flashes of luminous clarity which Veblen achieved through satire. In the second place, there is lacking in Mr. Dorfman's book that consistent development of a central thesis which characterized all of Veblen's writings. Mr. Dorfman appears, in retrospect, always to have known where he was going. But the massing of incident and data, combined with abrupt transitions in development, may cause readers to get within the forest and become lost among the trees.

In one most important respect Mr. Dorfman is consistent with the tradition established by the company of great scholars of which Veblen was a member. He maintains an objective view of the subject with which he deals. This is a difficult feat for a disciple. It is especially difficult in the case of Veblen, whose persuasive powers swept most of his disciples into a state which he himself has called "uncritical acquiescence."

HORACE TAYLOR

Columbia University

Sources of Culture in The Middle West. Backgrounds versus Frontier. Edited by Dixon Ryan Fox. New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1934. Pp. 110. \$1.00.

Only the very rash or the very learned hazard philosophy; erudition makes for timidity, and historical scholarship which has been much enamored of the scientific

method has lost itself in technique. Consequently, we have many monographs, some histories, but no philosophy of history. Henry Adams insisted that if history was to become a science it must hope to formulate its laws on the basis of American experience, and Frederick Jackson Turner alone of our historians has attempted to discover what is unique about this experience. It speaks much for the vitality of the Turner thesis that it should not have excited serious criticism until forty years after its promulgation; it is even more illuminating that as yet no alternative thesis has been advanced.

The point of departure of the four essays in this volume is the Turner hypothesis: the essays suggest criticism, qualification, and amendment, but neither refutation nor abandonment. Mr. Wright of Harvard University is most severe: in a succinct analysis of "Political Institutions and the Frontier," he points out that the western states borrowed heavily of the eastern; that their political institutions were neither original nor unique; and that political democracy is as much an eastern as a western contribution, that it is indeed largely an inheritance from England. "One has but to compare the differences between the institutions of the English and those of the French, Dutch, and Spanish colonies in America to see that the foundations, and more, of our democracy were brought in the *Susan Constant* and the *Mayflower*. That democracy did not come out of the American forest unless it was first carried there." Turner's thesis, Wright finds "narrow and provincial," but having "no desire to disparage Turner's standing as an historian," Wright is willing to pardon him for excessive zeal in a cause that had been neglected.

Mr. Craven emphasizes the social and cultural complexity of the frontier advance. Because pioneers brought to a primitive environment an advanced civilization, because they borrowed where they could and invented what they must, the west presented a synchronization of institutions. A primitive environment did not mean a primitive society; even while the west was in the home-market stage of economics, its educational, literary, and religious institutions compared favorably with those of the east. Craven's essay is called "The Advance of Civilization into the Middle West in the Period of Settlement," and the title is significant. Nothing is more elusive than the genealogy of culture, and Mr. Craven's efforts to trace and to make this genealogy legitimate are most suggestive.

Mr. Hicks' essay is concerned with the development of culture in the Middle West since 1860, and he emphasizes the extent to which the industrial revolution, rapid communication, and immigration have transformed the cultural pattern of the west. Some years ago that most suggestive of critics, Lewis Mumford, remarked that the whole pioneering process, from Europe to America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, had been one of disintegration and demoralization. "The notion that the frontier settlements resisted the advance of civilization," Hicks retorts, "is palpably absurd," and he notes the rapidity with which the industrial revolution brought each advance in civilization to the frontier west. He is impressed, too, with the original contributions of the west to government, to education, to literature. Yet the animadversions of a long train of critics from Timothy Dwight to Van Wyck Brooks deserve perhaps more attention than they receive.

These three essays are interpreted by Mr. Hansen and illuminated by the editor of the volume, Mr. Fox. Mr. Hansen's remarks are particularly worthy of attention: he has insisted upon the importance of the comparative study of American institutions with special reference to their European background, and he has enjoined upon Amer-

ican historians the study of European society, upon European historians the study of American society. It is not improbable that when the history of the American frontier is finally written, it will embrace not only an analysis of European contributions but of the history of frontier institutions from those of ancient Greece and Rome to those of Australia, Siberia, and South Africa.

HENRY STEELE COMMAGER

New York University

A Century of Municipal Progress. Edited by Laski, Jennings, and Robson. London: Allen & Unwin, Ltd. Pp. 511. \$5.00.

Local government, if not as exciting or spectacular as national politics, has a much more immediate and direct influence on the lives and happiness of the people. In a century since the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 in Great Britain, in commemoration of which this volume has been edited by Professors Laski, Jennings, and Robson of the University of London, for the National Association of Local Government Officers, England has succeeded in converting an amateur, irresponsible, and often corrupt system of local government into the most efficient administrative system we know. Here, within the compass of a single volume, individual chapters of that story are told by men themselves actually engaged in or intimately associated with various aspects of English local government today.

The volume covers not only the evolution in the structure and working of local government institutions, but traces the widening of its functions and activities "in being"—the progress in all those fields, technical, fiscal, social, with which modern cities inevitably have to do. The shift from local government by the "great unpaid"—the gentry who controlled at once the land, and the closed corporations of the cities—to administration by expert and responsible officials in close collaboration with democratically elected Councils of men genuinely devoting capacity and energy to local government is hardly less significant in terms of human welfare than the progress in municipal trading, sanitation, or housing. In fact, as this account most cogently suggests by its very portrayal of events, the latter not infrequently depended on the former.

The nineteen papers by seventeen authors range from "Before 1835" by Dr. Halevy to "The Outlook" by Dr. Robson. In between lie the wide ranges of municipal activities, health, highways, housing, education, welfare, as well as the more technical services. Comparisons and contrasts with this country are numerous and interesting. First of all, the caliber of city councilors—in part at least due to civic appreciation of the services rendered—call to mind the evolution of our best governed city today, Cincinnati. And English experience here portrayed points very much to the same conclusion—that an effective citizen-interest makes city councilship an honor as well as a challenge to capacity and integrity. Again, the whole structure of modern English municipal administration has pointed the way to our greatest improvement, the city manager plan. The attention paid, moreover, by English cities to the provision of a widening range of social service is at once a contrast and a blue print of possible American development. Here is a volume, in short, which should not only be read by every teacher of the social studies whether in history, economics, civics, or sociology, but should be available to students, so that they may gain both insight and perspective.

from this survey of the range and contours of English civic development, for the future of American city life.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Birmingham, England

Toward Understanding Japan. By Sidney L. Gulick. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. ix. 270. \$2.00.

Dr. Gulick has long been known for his constructive work as a proponent of better understanding and good will in the field of international relations. His many years of residence in Japan have given him a sympathetic point of view in particular toward that country's domestic and foreign problems. In this book, as its sub-title "Constructive Proposals for Removing the Menace of War" indicates, he has reviewed the course of events in the Far East in recent years concluding with an outline of a constructive policy to be followed by the United States and Japan to avoid the menace of a conflict which has nowhere been more talked about in recent years than in Japan itself.

The author has made as good a "case" for Japan as it is possible to make, the more effective in that there is a certain air of objectivity enhanced by an occasional criticism of minor features of Japan's foreign policy. It is the best apology for Japan's aggressive policy which the reviewer has chanced to read. Conscious of the author's point of view the reader can derive from this book a number of significant facts and trends which will go far to give him not only an "understanding" of Japan but of crucial issues at stake in the Far East. Of particular value are his chapters on Japan's "Problems and Policies," "The Asiatic Immigration Exclusion Movement," and on Japan's international trade. With his conclusion that America must confine its navy program to the maintenance of a purely defensive navy and not seek through extensive navy construction and the development of naval bases in the Pacific to challenge Japan's claim for hegemony in the Far East or to keep the door open in China for our trade, all will agree unless they are animated by sentimental nationalism, or are ignorant of the trends of modern trade or are speaking from the narrow point of view of their own immediate interests.

CYRUS H. PEAKE

Columbia University

Manchuria Cradle of Conflict. Revised Edition. By Owen Lattimore. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. xviii, 343. \$3.00.

This is the revised edition of a work which appeared first in 1932. As the first edition was completed before September 18, 1931, when the Japanese launched their continental campaigns which culminated in the establishment of "Manchoukuo," the author has added two new chapters to bring the study up to date. The first new chapter (XIII) is a summary of events from September 18, 1931 to the spring of 1935. The other chapter (XIV) discusses the relation between Manchuria as a geographical region and "Manchoukuo" as a political structure from the viewpoint of contemporary history as a whole. The first chapter is the only one which has been extensively rewritten and succeeds in making the relation of geography to history in the region clearer than it was in the first edition.

This very readable study, by one of the outstanding authorities on Manchuria and Mongolia, forms an excellent background for understanding of vital problems

in one of the most dangerous "storm-centers" of the modern world. The author describes from an historical-anthropological point of view the relations, on China's northern frontier, between the Manchus, Mongols, and the Chinese. Down through the centuries these northern tribes have been able to keep intact their grazing lands, confining the Chinese roughly to the regions south of the Great Wall. More than that, they have from time to time successfully invaded China and set up their own dynasties as the Mongols did from 1260 to 1368 and the Manchus from 1644 to 1911. Toward the close of the last century, however, the Chinese began pushing northward, colonizing and settling the frontier, and are gradually pushing back the Manchus and Mongols, depriving them of their former grazing lands. The nature of this "conquest" as of the Russian and Japanese encroachments in this area is carefully set forth. In this tri-cornered struggle for land, power, and control, will the Mongols (the Manchus have for the most part already) lose their racial and cultural uniqueness? If so, which of the three nations—China, Japan, or Russia—will eventually control the area? At the present, Japan seems likely to win out, with Russia a close second. But time may well be on the side of the slowly expanding mass of Chinese who underneath Japanese imperialism are pushing gradually their direct control over the land through actual occupation and cultivation.

The issues involved here are such as to defy immediate settlement and this area of Mongolia and Manchuria, the ancient home of the nomadic Mongols and Manchus, will no doubt continue to be a periodic center of strain and possibly conflict during our generation and the next. The reviewer knows of no single book better able to give a proper background for following current developments in this area unless it be the other works of Mr. Lattimore on the same subject.

CYRUS H. PEAKE

Columbia University

Our Contemporary Civilization. By Roscoe Lewis Ashley. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1935. Pp. xv, 608. \$2.90.

This book is intended as a text for survey courses in the social sciences and is the outgrowth of the author's experience at the Pasadena Junior College. The subject-matter covered is as extensive as the title implies and is organized in four main parts. Part I, Historical Transformation, deals in summary fashion with human history, emphasizes industrial and political revolutions, takes the World War as an "epitome" of present-day civilization, and stresses the fact that our civilization is in transition from an agricultural society to another type of social order. Part II, The Dilemma of Industrial Capitalism, is the author's interpretation of the problem of our economic order. In his words, "industrialism has grown so great through improvements of technology in applications of power, and vast sources of capital available, that further increase destroys real possibility of profitable production—and industrialism without profitable production would not be industrialism at all" (p. 104). Part III, Public Reorganization in a New Age, is devoted largely to the problems involved in a closer integration of the economic and political elements in our changing society. Part IV, The Twentieth-Century Cultural Renaissance, is a discussion of such topics as "the changing family," "trends and tendencies in education," "religion in a new world," and "science and civilization."

Inasmuch as he believes that our economic and political institutions are in "critical condition," Ashley has intentionally overstressed the economic and political factors.

To a considerable extent, his treatment is descriptive; but, in addition, he has a thesis, namely, that a new social order is in process of creation, and, in the course of this process, "for democracy a severe series of treatments may be adequate," while "in the case of industrial capitalism nothing short of several major operations will probably suffice" (p. vi). Furthermore, the descriptive material is accompanied by a running comment of value judgments far more appropriate to a discussion in social ethics than a text in social science.

Any appraisal of content in a work covering such a wide range of subjects, of necessity, must be selective, and, perhaps, unrepresentative of the work as a whole. Yet, in view of the space devoted to it and the importance attached to it by the author, the reviewer cannot refrain from drawing attention to a few aspects of the discussion in Part II. According to Ashley, "capitalism is a system devised to prevent real circulation of wealth" (p. 165). "Life-preserving capital has been kept in main channels [in the possession of capitalists and capitalist-controlled corporations] . . . when low income and inheritance tax rates prevented its natural [sic] return to the tillers of the soil or their co-workers in field or factory" (p. 167). To remedy this situation and the attendant ills to which our economic order is heir, "we need some new theory, as well as new practices, in our western, Christian, capitalist civilization" (p. 244). It is not a "totally different social order" that we need but rather "a new type of capitalistic society with business motives, if not business methods, analogous to those of the present *but* organized on a public economics of plenty rather than on a private economics of scarcity" (p. 254). An essential feature of such a reorganized society will be economic planning.

In expanding the argument outlined in the foregoing, Ashley shows little sympathy for and understanding of economic analysis as developed by professional economists. To say that "machine industry has long faced the situation that it can produce far more than the public can consume" (p. 104) is true only when the qualifying phrase "at the price charged" is added. There is little evidence that machine industry is capable of producing all that the public is capable of consuming. To identify wealth and money, as it is done on page 131, is to slip into an error that should cause any economist to writhe. To assert that "marginal lands can be left out of a concerted efficiency farm program" (p. 266) is to reveal a fundamental misunderstanding of the way in which the marginal concept is used in economic analysis. Furthermore, economists will be surprised to learn that "the World War proved that much of our old economic theory was wrong or did not correspond with fact. At that time prices did not follow the curves laid down for them when we applied the economic principles we thought universal and permanent" (p. 245). One is tempted to ask what theory was proved wrong and what economic principles were applied. Again, such statements and phrases as "the standards by which we judge conditions are wrong, like the basic principles" (p. 135), "defective and undesirable economics of scarcity," "wrong economic theory" (p. 254), and "we need some new theory . . ." indicate that the author confuses economic theory with ethics. Also, to talk about "an economics of plenty" is to talk in contradictory terms. If there were plenty, there would be no economic problem, for there would be no necessity of allocating scarce resources to competing uses.

It may be, and this idea occurred after the above statement was composed, that Ashley has written as he has for the purpose of provoking discussion and disagreement. If such is the case, the reviewer can testify to the ease with which he was lured

into the author's trap. After all, it is the outstanding merit of this text that it does raise questions, and should provoke students to discussion and thought.

THOMAS H. ROBINSON

Colgate University

An Appraisal of Certain Phases of Economic Instruction in the Secondary Schools of New Jersey. By Gordon E. McCloskey. New York: Julius Lewin & Sons, 1935. Pp. 106.

The major purpose of this doctoral dissertation is "to determine and evaluate the content of whatever instruction is actually provided in these subjects [distribution, consumption, and economic planning and control] at present" (p. 10). Preliminary investigations included a survey of the educational literature from 1642-1933, from which the author brings together a tabular view of social and economic values; a survey of textbooks not only in economics, but also in social studies, home economics, civics, history, commercial geography, and junior business training. Visits were then made to classrooms in these subjects in eighteen cities of different sizes. A questionnaire survey of the extent to which different textbooks were used was made; the findings are reported in a tabular form, as are the results of a more extended analysis of the text materials on the three phases of economics selected for study. Using the position of the school of economic thought "that consumption, rather than production, is the real purpose of economic activity" (p. 47), with consequent control of industrial power for the fairer and wider distribution of the products and earnings of industry, the author formulates twenty two criteria, buttressed by excerpts and documentation from economists within and without the school of thought utilized, technocrats, educators, and popular writers on economic topics. He then uses these criteria to evaluate textbooks and instruction.

Only a few of the findings can be summarized here: (1) with only three exceptions, all the instruction observed was based entirely on recitation and discussion of the textbook; (2) state and local courses of study are "little more than mere outlines" with probably little effect upon the nature of instructional materials; (3) textbooks are frequently inadequate presentations of materials formulated under old schemes of classification, "crowded with the classic shibboleths of a scarcity economy"; (4) the present program fails to define essential relationships in the areas under investigation; provides mere descriptions rather than analyses of present economic institutions, forces, and problems; fails to provide forward-looking conceptions of economic democracy at the same time that it provided "only one side of controversial economic issues," and is therefore unsatisfactory.

That the author has read widely is evident; that he has woven together and focused his materials as a basis for the formulation of his criteria also seems evident; that he has placed himself in a defensible position by confining his evaluation in terms of one school of thought seems doubtful. Economists and teachers of other schools of thought may, and probably will, disagree with his criteria, and hence with his findings. Even Karl Marx is on record that in the final analysis production is basic to consumption. But the real test, granting the author's frame of reference, is how consistent he has been in the formulation of his criteria and their application. Uncertainty arises in one's mind because of the apparent lack of discrimination in bringing together in one group so-called "liberal" economists, technocrats, educators, and popularizers as authorities on the subjects under investigation. The inclusion of

commercial geography and home economics within the realm of social studies is also questioned, especially since as many texts in home economics as in economics are tabulated. While the author is to be commended for not attempting to provide an easy tabulation of materials that do not lend themselves readily to this technique, he has not entirely escaped the danger of verbalisms in his analysis.

W. G. KIMMEL

Social Organization and Disorganization. By Stuart Alfred Queen, Walter Blaine Bodenhafer, and Ernest Bouldin Harper. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1935. Pp. xii, 653. \$3.50.

Conceived as "a sociological contribution to the study of social problems," emphasis in this volume is placed "on group organization, institutional decline, and the social maladjustment of individuals" presented "in juxtaposition to the positive or constructive processes of group organization, institutional growth, and personal-social adjustment" (p. vi). After setting the stage in terms of definitions and classifications, the authors, in Part I, treat the family in terms of disorganizing influences such as marital conflicts, broken homes, and relations of adults and children; rural and urban communities and special interest groups complete the list. In Part II, economic and political institutions, international organization, and culture conflict and culture lag are treated. Part III on personalities considers personal disorganization and inadequacy in relation to social change, as well as conflict as a pattern of response and accommodation to it. A final chapter sets the problems of social reorganization viewed in terms of causation and control, with a differentiation between the individual and cultural approaches.

About a somewhat loose structural framework of chapters, the authors have assembled a large body of materials from reports, investigations, and surveys; from research monographs and census reports, textbooks, the periodical literature both professional and popular; and a variety of other sources. They draw from all the social sciences as well as from psychology, biology, and related disciplines. These diverse materials are focused into the authors' schemes of classification. While one may applaud their attempts to weave together materials from so many diverse sources in order to throw light upon the contemporary scene, he is likely to find the emerging patterns somewhat obscure unless he brings to the volume a rather definite command of the interrelations between the social sciences. In a sick world, it is perhaps inevitable that the elements of social disorganization should receive much more space than those of social organization.

Teachers of the social studies in secondary schools will find in this volume a source of much concrete material if they use it with discrimination. It will serve as an excellent antidote to the all too frequent "sweetness and light" approach to contemporary problems at the secondary-school level.

A Syllabus in American History and Problems of American Democracy for Secondary Schools. By a Committee of the New England History Teachers Association, Blanche A. Cheney, Chairman. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. vi, 213. \$1.00.

A committee of seven members, in this syllabus divided into three parts, presents objectives and guiding principles in content and method, a series of eleven units and thirteen "sub-units" for a course in American history, and a series of twenty

six social, economic, and political problems for a course in Problems of American Democracy. There are numerous bibliographies appended to the different sections of the first part, lists of references throughout, and a detailed bibliography at the end of the volume.

The general plan of the course in American history is loosely chronological. Beginning with the first unit, "Introductory Study of the Meaning and Value of History," three additional units bring the course down to 1789. An unusually detailed "unit," divided into eight parts, deals with international relations from 1778 to the present time. One unit is allotted to each of the following: industrial development, social and cultural progress, the new deal, and "The Future of the United States." Most of the really important elements since 1865, from a progressive point of view, are relegated to "sub-units," which may be substituted for two other units.

The problems course is divided into the conventional three types. Among the social problems are the family population and immigration, race problems, city and rural life, conservation, and leisure—to mention only part of the series. The economic list includes among others: getting a living and unemployment, industrial relations, money and banking. In addition to the federal, state, and local governments, the political problems include public opinion, the peace movement, and "Present Democratic Tendencies."

The general plan of treatment in both courses includes: knowledge to be taught together with attitudes, ideals, and habits to be fostered; suggested activities; references. The outlines under knowledge are of the guidance type rather than comprehensive, and vary widely in length and quality.

In general, aside from the first part and the unit on the study and meaning of history, the suggested courses, despite the use of newer curriculum rubrics, are a mixture of a conventional approach to content combined with the idealistic patterns of the American tradition, as differentiated from a realistic attempt to grapple with the hard facts and stern realities of our present status as a nation and how we arrived at this point in our national development. Many of the "problems," while found in conventional textbooks, are really not basic problems, but rather surface tensions developing out of basic maladjustments. The consumer, the lack of purchasing power even in so-called normal times, and the inadequate distribution of income are omitted. The old three-fold rubrics of government are followed, but political parties, administration and the merit system, and a host of other difficult problems in government from a functional point of view are omitted. While incipient fascist tendencies are prevalent, it requires a certain tough-mindedness to include a problem entitled "Present Democratic Tendencies." Titles in reference lists include many which have been superseded by better volumes; the lists vary widely in quality for different units and problems; many important omissions are noted.

The courses recommended, in short, seem to represent a recasting of conventional materials in new curriculum categories rather than a realistic and bold attempt to build up new patterns in terms of the latest scholarship and interpretations in the social sciences and in terms of the baffling problems which will be faced by youth as they emerge from these courses into the larger adult world.

Source Book for Sociology. By Kimball Young. New York: American Book Co., 1935. Pp. xvi, 639.

In this volume 209 excerpts and selections from books, articles, and some pre-

viously unpublished case studies are arranged in five parts: groups in relation to culture and personality; the relationships between geography, race, and population; social organization and culture, with consideration of the family, education, religion, play, art, science, and philosophy; fundamental processes of interaction such as competition, coöperation, conflict, accommodation, and assimilation; and various aspects of social control. The general plan of presentation involves the weaving together of materials by brief introductory and summary notes. Brief bibliographies are appended to each chapter. The sources from which the author draws his material are predominately sociology, anthropology, social psychology, with a small number of titles from geography, education, biology, economics, philosophy, and history. In these days when discussion of cross-fertilization between subjects is prominent, it would have been possible to draw more heavily upon the materials of economics and history, for example, without doing violence to the system of ideas and conceptual framework of sociology. Teachers of social studies in secondary schools, without access to adequate libraries, in order to keep abreast of current scholarly works will find this book a useful and essential addition to their personal libraries.

The Citizen and His Government: A Study of Democracy in the United States. By John A. Lapp and Robert B. Weaver. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935. Pp. vii, 680, xxxii. \$1.80.

Following a somewhat conventional historical introduction, the authors present in the other four parts of this textbook, intended for use in senior high schools, a functional approach to the legislative, executive, and judicial processes in federal, state, and local areas of government. In turn they consider the perplexing problems of elections, political parties, public opinion, civil service and the merit system, public expenditures and revenues, corruption, phases of welfare, and the protection of the rights and liberties of individuals. In Part IV they consider comparative government, international organization, and the rôle of the United States in world affairs. In a final chapter the functioning of government in crisis and depression is described. Pedagogical aids include questions on the text, reference lists, and long lists of problems and suggestions for group discussion and reports.

The book is organized in terms of units, which conform more closely to the technical meaning of this plan of organization than most current volumes bearing the label. The treatment is a combination of descriptive, expository, and analytical presentation of government as a going concern. The authors do not pull their punches in the isolation of problems and issues; at the same time their discussion is reasoned and balanced. What makes the wheels of government go round is handled as realistically as is apparently possible in a book intended for use in the public schools dominated, as they so generally seem to be, by the folkways of a people, all too many of whom are still in their political childhood and adolescence. This volume, handled by a teacher competently educated in political science with the aid of a good reference library, should aid students to advance rapidly toward political maturity.

Challenge to Democracy. By C. DeLisle Burns. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1935. Pp. viii, 240. \$2.50.

Modern dictatorships challenge democracies, according to the author, because they aim "to meet the needs of the present situation by resorting to primitive methods of organizing the desire for a life in common" (p. v). Democracies, if they are to meet the challenge, must rescue the common people from persecution and dogmatism, as

well as from "the loneliness and insecurity of a decaying social order" (p. vi). After tracing the present crisis in city, national, and international affairs, the author then considers health, wealth, education, the making and using of the relationships between leaders and "nobodies" in relation to the central problems under consideration. Important elements, the author rightly insists, in the development of orderly change in a democratic society are emotional appeal, intelligent propaganda, and enthusiasm, but these are not implemented in terms of the conflict of forces and competing interests in an industrial age. Written in a philosophical frame of reference and in an interesting style, the book, while it poses problems and considers ways and means of meeting them, is lacking in sharp focus and directness in terms of many of the hard realities of modern life.

Man's Achievement: I. To the Age of Steam; II. The Age of Science and Democracy.

By Edwin W. Pahlow. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934, 1935. Pp. xiv, 740, xiv; xiii, 778, xix. \$1.96. \$1.88.

These two volumes intended for a two-year course in world history, with the second book beginning with the sixteenth century, are organized in such a manner as to cover a wide range of materials combined with a rather arbitrary selection apparently intended to provide a compact presentation. Thus the author introduces materials in social and intellectual history dealing with the life and thought of peoples as well as the more conventional approaches to content.

Three introductory chapters in the first book attempt to relate history to the pupil's own immediate environment as well as to furnish clues as to how the historian uses and compiles the content of history. Then through an array of parts, units, and chapters, which sometimes appear to be almost overly organized, the author traces the unfolding patterns of world history. Titles of chapters, paragraph headings, and captions beneath illustration reveal his facility with language which should appeal to pupils. The books are attractively illustrated with many time charts and other devices used to develop the time sense and to orient the pupils. The pedagogical apparatus, while apparently adequate, is not permitted to clutter up the volumes.

The compact presentation, the somewhat journalistic language, the striving for colorful introductory paragraphs, the short chapters, and other elements seem to indicate that the books are intended primarily for intellectually immature and slow learners. If this supposition is well-founded, the author seems to have proceeded on the assumption that short chapters, highly organized, with a minimum of facts represent the approach to history for such pupils. Others, however, may prefer more content presented in a more systematic narrative with less obtrusive organization. Much depends upon whether the purpose is the study of history, or the reading of materials to "recite" them later. In any event, we as yet know so little about the most suitable form of presentation of materials for the intellectually immature and slow learners who are crowding our secondary schools that it would be tedious to wait for general agreement. Meanwhile, the author has made available attractive volumes which should meet the needs of such pupils as well as hold the attention of more capable students.

Financing New York City. By William Whyte. Philadelphia: Academy of Political and Social Sciences, 1935. Pp. vii, 70. 50c.

The second title in this pamphlet series deals with the intricate and complex details of the comprehensive budget of New York City, a budget more than two million

dollars larger than that of California, and almost as large as those of all other states west of the Mississippi, according to Joseph D. McGoldrick, who contributes a Foreword. Written by an undergraduate in Swarthmore College, the eight parts of the pamphlet treat in turn the organization of local government; an analysis of expenditures, revenues, debts; the ramifications of the complicated rapid transit problem; the impact of the depression with consequent relief expenditures upon the city's financial affairs; the recent financial history under the three mayors with the Bankers' Agreement, under which the bankers "supervise" the finances of the city government even though they were apparently to loan money without applying "the checks of good business and good sense . . . when Mayor Walker was throwing money around" (p. 39); the outlook for the future; and a series of recommendations. There is a bibliography.

In a brief notice it is impossible to summarize data and recommendations, or to indicate some of the conclusions with which we disagree. The author leans rather heavily upon the data and findings of earlier substantial investigations, as well as upon those of the Citizens Budget Commission, a somewhat misleading title for an unofficial pressure group interested, among other things, in reduction of the tax burden upon property interests. The pamphlet also marks a very creditable study by an undergraduate enrolled in a college whose flexible requirements enable exceptional students to engage in research. Teachers of government and economics in New York City, and other cities as well, will find the pamphlet a necessary part of their professional libraries.

What the Depression Has Done to Cities. Edited by Clarence E. Ridley and Orin F. Nolting. Chicago: International City Managers' Association, 1935. Pp. vi, 55. \$1.00.

Bearing the self-explanatory sub-title, "An Appraisal by Thirteen Authorities of the Effects of the Depression on Municipal Activities," this pamphlet deals with the attempts made during the depression to provide the diversified functions and activities in municipal finance and personnel, city planning, parks and recreation, public health and public welfare, housing, public works, police and fire services, public schools and libraries, and municipal utilities. Each author, an authority in the field, presents facts, figures, and interpretative comments. Teachers of civics, modern problems, government, and economics in secondary schools will wish to read this pamphlet; intelligent pupils can use it to advantage.

Economics of Planning: Principles and Practice. By H. R. Burrows and J. K. Horsefield. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1935. Pp. 31. 50c.

This first title in a new "Pamphlet Series" is a reprint of a series of articles bearing the same title printed in the *Manchester Garden Commercial*. The authors, members of the staff of the University of Bristol, treat in twelve sections the competitive system, its elements of weakness and strength, the relation between planning by industry and state control within the system; state planning; the situation with respect to planning in Russia, Italy, England, and the United States. There is a summary, with additional comments and suggestions. The presentation is descriptive rather than analytical and critical.

American Primers. Edited by Percy W. Bidwell. *Youth in the Depression* by Kingsley Davis. *Strikes* by Joseph J. Senturia. *Friends or Enemies?* by Julius W. Pratt. *Money* by Marc Rose and Roman L. Horne. *Crime* by Nathaniel Cantor. *Jobs or the Dole?* by Neal B. DeNood and Joseph J. Senturia. *Business and Government* by John C. Crighton and Joseph J. Senturia. *The Farm Business* by Roman L. Horne. *You and Machines* by William F. Ogburn. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. 25c each.

This series of pamphlets, intended for adolescents and adults, is based on authoritative materials presented in non-technical language in order to orient the reader in each of the areas considered. Each pamphlet includes a descriptive and factual presentation, a series of questions, and a bibliography of briefly annotated titles for further reading. They are printed in an attractive format, with cartoons and charts that are actually illustrative, and bound in photographic covers appropriate to the different titles. Classes in the social studies other than history at the secondary-school level, as well as adult study groups, will find this series useful as a part of course readings and for general orientation.

The United States Since 1865. Revised Edition. By Louis M. Hacker and Benjamin B. Kendrick. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1934. \$3.75.

In this revision of a most useful volume, which in reality is a synthesis of the voluminous materials since 1865, the authors have added an eleventh section entitled "America Fights the Depression." In three chapters the events from the election of 1932 through midsummer of 1934 are portrayed in a compact and impartial manner. These chapters are not a mere disjointed appendage; on the contrary, they fit naturally into the framework set for the earlier edition. The American public, lulled into complacency by favorable publicity only to become fearful that industrialism with high finance on its shoulders is again climbing into the saddle to ride the new deal in the direction long familiar to it, will find some clues to the current forces at work in "The New Deal Makes Progress Slowly." A separate index is provided for these additional chapters.

Current Publications Received

HISTORY

- Abbott, Wiibur Cortez. Adventures in Reputation. With an Essay on Some "New" History and Historians. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1935. Pp. 264. \$2.50.
- Allen, Edward M. America's Story as Told in Postage Stamps. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935. Pp. 199. \$2.50.
- Bailey, Carolyn Sherwin. Children of the Handcrafts. New York: Viking Press, 1935. Pp. 192. \$2.00.
- Chamberlin, William Henry. The Russian Revolution, 1917-1921, Vols. I and II. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. ix, 511; ix, 556. \$10.00 for both vols.
- Chinard, Gilbert. La Vie Américaine de Guillaume Merle d'Aubigné, Extraits de son Journal de Voyage et de sa Correspondance inédite 1809-1817, avec une introduction et des notes (Historical Documents Institut Français de Washington, Cahier IX). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1935. Pp. 152. \$2.75.
- Flournoy, Francis R. British Policy Towards Morocco in the Age of Palmerston. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1935. Pp. xiii, 287. \$2.75.
- Fox, Dixon Ryan. Ideas in Motion. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935. Pp. 126. \$1.25.
- Hathaway, Esse V. Partners in Progress. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935. Pp. vii, 303. \$2.50.
- Kuo, P. C. A Critical Study of the First Anglo-Chinese War. Shanghai, China: Commercial Press, Ltd., 1935. Pp. 315.
- Ramsey, Robert W. Richard Cromwell, Protector of England. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1935. Pp. xv, 239.
- Varneck, Elena and Fisher, H. H., eds. The Testimony of Kolchak and Other Siberian Materials (Hoover War Library Publications, No. 10). Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1935. Pp. xi, 466. \$5.00.
- Wesley, Edgar Bruce. Guarding the Frontier. A Study of Frontier Defense, 1815-1825. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1935. Pp. xi, 217. \$2.50.

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- Corey, Lewis. The Crisis of the Middle Class. New York: Covici, Friede Inc., 1935. Pp. 379. \$2.50.
- Heckscher, Eli F. Mercantilism, Vols. I and II (authorized translation by Mendel Shapiro). New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. 472; 419. \$15.00 for both vols.
- Willcox, O. W. Nations Can Live at Home. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1935. Pp. xi, 279. \$2.75.

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- Simonds, Frank H. American Foreign Policy in the Post-War Years. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1935. Pp. 160. \$2.00.
- Willoughby, Westel W. The Sino-Japanese Controversy and The League of Nations. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1935. Pp. xxv, 733. \$5.00.

GOVERNMENT

- Crawford, Finla G. Our Government Today. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1935. Pp. viii, 354. 96c.
- Padelford, Norman J. Peace in the Balkans. New York: Oxford University Press, 1935. Pp. ix, 209. \$2.00.
- Addams, Jane. My Friend, Julia Lathrop. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. ix, 228. \$2.00.

SOCIOLOGY

- Bentley, Arthur F. Behavior, Knowledge, Fact. Bloomington: Principia Press, 1935. Pp. xii, 391.
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139. \$1.25.

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- Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools. Memorandum on the Teaching
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New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1935. Pp. 335. 90c.
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- Hankins, Frank H. An Introduction to the Study of Society. Revised Edition. New York: Mac-
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Gray, J. Stanley. Psychological Foundations of Education (American Psychology Series). New
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- Hildt, John C.; Gray, William Dodge; and Faulkner, Harold Underwood, eds. Smith College
Studies in History, Vol. XIX, Nos. 3-4 (April-July, 1934). Northampton: Smith College,
Department of History. Pp. 132.
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istic Studies, Vol. V., No. 1, Bulletin of University of Kansas, XXXVI (April 1, 1935).
Pp. 101.

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- Ridley, Clarence E., and Nolting, Orin F., eds. What the Depression Has Done to Cities. An Ap-
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- Cantor, Nathaniel. Crime. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. 44. 25c.
Crighton, John C., and Senturia, Joseph J. Business and Government. Chicago: University of
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Rose, Marc, and Horne, Roman L. *Money*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. 50. 25c.
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